

THE HISTORY OF CANADA

G. U. HAY

WITH SKETCH OF

HISTORY OF PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

H. M. ANDERSON

Authorized for use in the Public Schools of
Prince Edward Island.

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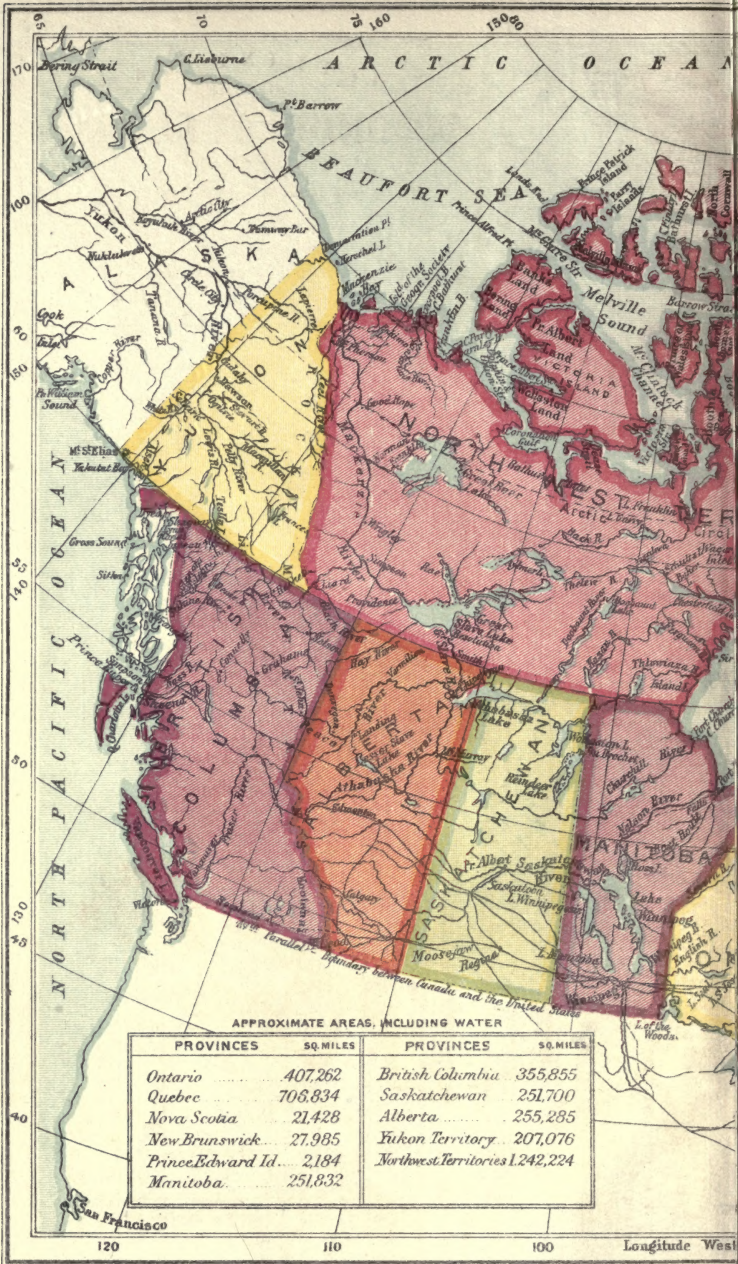


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OUTLINE MAP OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA AND NEWFOUNDLAND.

Reduced from map in
How Canada is governed
By Sir J.G. Bourinot KCMG.



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*George
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BY
G. U. HAY, PH.B., D.Sc.

TO WHICH HAS BEEN ADDED A SKETCH OF THE

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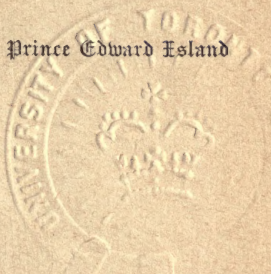
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PREFACE.

It has been the aim, in writing this brief History of Canada, to make the language as far as possible simple and natural. Instead of a compilation of facts, strung together for the sake of getting everything in, more attention has been given to describe with some degree of fulness those events which stand out boldly in our history. The more commonplace facts have not been left out, but have been woven together, thus securing interest, as well as cohesion, and avoiding that dry, formal and scrappy treatment so uninteresting to beginners. As the school life of many children is very short, it is hoped that the method of treatment in this book will give them some intelligent idea of the country as a whole, and arouse such an interest that they, as well as those who remain longer at school, will have a desire for the further study of the history of their own country.

I have made use so fully of the many excellent works on Canadian history that it is difficult to acknowledge in particular my many obligations for the facts incorporated in the following pages. The most difficult task has been to weigh the importance of these facts and judge what is best to omit.

I wish to express my gratitude to those friends who have so kindly assisted me in reading proofs, and by whose help the book, it is hoped, may be found as free as possible from errors.

Teachers will find it a convenience to have the pronunciation of the more difficult proper names in parenthesis throughout the text. The outline maps will also prove valuable for reference ; but pupils should be made to see the necessity of consulting maps, and making, at every stage of their progress, outlines for themselves of all places named in the text. No plan is more excellent in impressing the facts of history on their minds.

G. U. HAY.

ST. JOHN, *June 1st, 1901.*

THE HISTORY OF CANADA.

CHAPTER I.

EXPLORATION.

Introduction.—Every boy and girl of Canada likes to read the story of our past. It is a tale of discovery and adventure, of the deeds of heroes, of fierce struggles with enemies, of bravely facing death and suffering in many forms. This record of the deeds of heroic men and brave women, who toiled and suffered to carve from the wilderness homes that are fitted to nourish a sturdy race, will help to form the life and character of the children who grow up to fill their places.

Canada stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the United States on the south to the Arctic Ocean on the north. Its area (3,315,647 square miles) is about as large as the whole of Europe or of the United States. Its coast waters, its vast lakes and noble rivers, and countless smaller lakes and streams, teem with fish ; its forests abound with game, and its mines with useful and precious metals ; its soil and climate are fitted to rear a hardy and vigorous people. The untold wealth of its forests, its mines, its soil, its seas, lakes and rivers, if carefully guarded and wisely used, will support prosperous and contented millions in the years to come.

Where are the boys and girls who are not proud of such a land, who are not eager to help make it their home, and to preserve it as a part of our great British Empire ?

Discovery.—Look on the map of the world. Find Norway ; trace from it a line to Iceland, then to Greenland, and then along the eastern coast of Canada. This was the track of those hardy Norsemen, who in their frail vessels braved the tempests of the northern seas, and founded colonies in Iceland and Greenland. Thence Leif Erikson, son of Erik the Red, the colonizer of Green-

land, sailed south, with nothing but the sun, moon and stars to guide him and his brave sailors. According to the Sagas (Norse legends), he came to Newfoundland, which he called Helluland (land of flat stones); next to Nova Scotia, which he named Markland (woodland); and, it is thought, to New England, which from the abundance of wild grapes growing there, he called Vinland (wine-land). This was about the year 1000 A.D., nearly 500 years before Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, landed at San Salvador (1492). The discoveries of the Northmen brought about no real contact between the Old World and the New. They are looked upon merely as chance visitors to our coasts. The discovery of Columbus, who seems to have known of the early Norse voyages, was followed by conquest and settlement, in which Spain took the leading part. Other nations were aroused by the discovery of a new world. In May, 1497, John Cabot, with his son Sebastian and eighteen men, left the port of Bristol, England, in one small ship, the "Matthew," to seek unknown lands to the west. The little craft of fifty tons safely braved the winds and waves of the Atlantic, and on the 24th of June first sighted land, on the east part of the island of Cape Breton. On that day began the claim of Great Britain to the North American continent. In the spring of 1498, John and Sebastian Cabot made a second voyage to the New World with a larger number of ships and men, making a second landing on the coast of Labrador; but, meeting with ice, they coasted southward as far as the point now called Cape Hatteras. Columbus supposed he had discovered the Indies, and the Cabots supposed they had found the way to distant Cathay (China). The full meaning of these discoveries did not become clear until years afterwards; and it is only in recent times that full credit has been given to the brave explorers. The men of their own times either forgot their deeds or thought there was nothing wonderful in what they had done. The Cabots, father and son, sleep in unknown graves. The small gratitude of King Henry VII. to the voyagers from England who first touched our shores is shown in the following entry, still preserved in the British Museum (mu-zē'-um): "August 10th (1497), to hymne that founde the New Isle, £10." The last years of Columbus, the bold Genoese navigator, were passed in poverty and neglect. Although many places on this continent are named after him, the

name America was given in honour of Amerigo Vespucci (am-er-ee'-go ves-poot'-chee), a Florentine merchant, who touched the continent somewhere in the north-east of South America, in 1501, on his third voyage, and wrote an account of the discovery.

Jacques Cartier, the Discoverer of Canada, 1534.—The real discoverer of Canada was Jacques Cartier (zhāk' kar'-tee-ā'). The Norsemen, the Cabots, the Portuguese Captain Cortereal, the French navigator, Verrazano (ver'-ratz-ah'-no), and a few others,



VOYAGES OF CARTIER AND CHAMPLAIN.

merely touched its outlying shores ; and were driven back by the fogs of Newfoundland, or the rocky and ice-bound shores of Labrador. It must be kept in mind that all these early voyages, except the Norsemen's, were made with the object of finding a shorter passage to the Indies or Cathay, so that the riches of the far East might find their way more easily to the shores of Europe. Cartier,

sent out by Francis I., King of France, in 1534, entered the Straits of Belle Isle and discovered the gulf that separates Newfoundland from the Atlantic provinces of Canada. The rugged shores of Labrador and north-western Newfoundland did not please him. He says it "must be the land allotted by God to Cain." But once within the gulf, and summer coming on, he found the warm weather and the scenery a pleasant relief from the icebergs and cold winds of the Atlantic. He skirted the shores of western Newfoundland and portions of what are now called Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Quebec. He has left us a faithful account of the places visited and the natives whom he saw. Next year (1535) Cartier made a second voyage. Entering the gulf on the festival day of St. Laurent (Aug. 10th), he named it the Gulf of St. Lawrence. This name was also given to the river. Guided by two Indians whom he had taken to France as captives the year before, he sailed up that noble river—the first white man who had sailed on its broad waters—until he reached a great Indian village where now stands Quebec. This was Stadacona, where ruled Donnacona, a chief of the Algonquin (al-gon'-keen) Indians. Further up the river he came to another Indian village, Hochelaga (hōsh'-e-lah'-gah), inhabited by a Huron tribe. This is the site of Montreal, so named from the hill behind it, which Cartier called Mount Royal. No wonder he was impressed with the views from the heights of Quebec and Mount Royal—the great plains to the west, the great sweep of mountain and valley to the north and south, and at his feet the noble river which he vainly thought would open to France and Frenchmen the treasures of China and India. He longed to tell the king of his great discovery; and after a miserable winter spent at Quebec, in which he lost many men from cold and disease, he set sail for France, taking with him the chief, Donnacona, and several of his Indian subjects, whom he had coaxed on board his vessel. This was a base return for the kindness Cartier had received at the hands of the Indians; but it was only one small instance of the cruelty and lack of faith of those who came to America to discover, then to conquer and to settle. The story too often is one of greed and cruelty on one side, and hate and slaughter on the other.

The Indians.—The Skrellings (yelling savages) was the name

that Leif Erikson and his Norse sailors gave to the natives of our shores. These looked with fear and wonder on the dragon ships, the weapons and the white faces of the rough Northmen, and were glad to see them depart. Cartier says of the Indians of the Gulf of St. Lawrence that they were good natured and quiet and would be "easy to convert to Christianity." But this was not so with all. The fierce Iroquois (eer'-o-kwah'), who lived in what is now the State of New York, were warlike and cruel, and frequently made war on the tribes who lived north of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes. These were the Hurons and Algonquins, the former occupying the region north and east of Lake Huron, and the latter, under various names and tribes, the country from the Atlantic Ocean towards the Rocky Mountains. Except the Eskimos (es'ke-mōs'), and the Indians of the Pacific Coast, the Algonquins made up the great mass of the Indians of Canada. The Micmacs and Maliseets, who lived in the Atlantic provinces, were branches of this family. They tilled the soil to some extent; but nearly all lived by hunting and fishing, and on wild fruits. The tribes frequently made war on one another; and the men, when not engaged in fighting, were roaming the forests, hunting and fishing, making rude weapons, or spending their time in feasting, talking, or sleeping. The women's lot was hard. On them fell all the heavy work and drudgery. In many tribes considerable skill was shown in the manufacture of snowshoes and moccasins, canoes from birch bark, and clothing from the skins of animals. Their tools and weapons were of the rudest kind—clubs, tomahawks, hatchets, arrowheads made of stone, the bow and arrow, fish-spears, hooks and lines, knives made from shells or thin slices of stone. The women were skilful in making baskets, ornamental work in quills and feathers, and cups and bowls shaped out of clay. Their houses or wigwams were built in the shape of a cone, with a framework of stakes covered with skins or bark. Often ten or twelve families lived together in long houses covered with bark. The Iroquois, Hurons, and to some extent the Algonquins, lived for mutual protection in large encampments. It is supposed that the word *kanata*, meaning an encampment or settlement such as that found by Cartier at Hochelaga, was used by him as a name for that whole district lying near. But at what time the name CANADA was applied to the whole country is uncertain.

CHAPTER II.

CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT.

First Settlements.—In 1542, six years after his return from his second voyage, Cartier, with Roberval (rob'-er-val') as the first vice-roy of Canada, attempted to found a settlement on the St. Lawrence ; but this, with further attempts for several years, ended only in failure, shipwreck and suffering. For nearly fifty years England and France took little interest in a country that promised them neither treasures nor a highway to the riches of the far East. But the true wealth of the country was little by little being found out. Hardy fishermen from Europe—their numbers increasing every year—sought Newfoundland and its banks for the fish that swarmed in these seas ; traders and men loving the free wild life of the woods sought in the forests of Canada valuable fur-bearing animals. Thus was laid the foundation of two of our greatest industries—the fisheries and the fur-trade.

The nearness of Newfoundland to England led to the hopes of founding a colony on that island. Between the years 1575 and 1585, it was visited by Martin Frobisher, Sir Francis Drake, and the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey Gilbert—names well known in England's annals of the sea. Two attempts of Gilbert to found a colony in Newfoundland (1579 and 1583) ended in disaster and death. In attempting to return to England, his little vessel foundered at sea, and he and all on board perished.

The costly furs from the Canadian forests lured the French traders. They bought these furs or pelts from the Indians, paying for them in trinkets, beads, gay-coloured cloths, and “fire-water” (brandy), and selling them at a great profit in France. Great fortunes were thus made. Frequent quarrels arose between rival traders or companies. In return for certain privileges the traders promised to provide settlers ; but those who came were left to starve or to care for themselves as best they could. The king, for a certain sum of money, granted at different times to his nobles or to a company the sole right (monopoly) of the fur-trade, on condition that they would found colonies. “The Company of the One

Hundred Associates," in 1627, was given the sole right to the fur trade and the coast and inland fisheries of Canada, on condition that they would bring out four thousand colonists, help them to settle, and maintain a Roman Catholic clergy for their spiritual benefit and for the conversion of the Indians. But the chief aim of the Company was to get riches. Many of the settlers either perished from cold and hunger or returned to France. Others took up with the wild life of the Indians, became "rovers of the woods," *coureurs de bois* (koo-rer'-de-bwah'), and married among the Indians, their descendants becoming the half-breeds of later years. But there was one among those early explorers whose name stands before all others.

Champlain, Founder of Canada.—Samuel de Champlain (sham-plane'), was a man whose memory Canadians, whether of French or English birth, hold in love and respect. He faithfully served his king, and he tried to do his duty. His chief aims were to make new discoveries, improve the country, make it better known by maps and writings, and above all to Christianize the people. He often said: "To save one soul is of more importance than to found a new empire." He was stern and upright, but his justice was tempered with mercy. In his dealings with the Indians he was fair and open, and he never engaged in traffic with them.

Champlain was trained for the sea from his earliest years. His first voyage to Canada was made in 1603, when he was thirty-six years of age. He explored and mapped the St. Lawrence as far as Montreal, and published an account of his voyage on his return to France the same year. On his second voyage, in 1604, he accompanied the Sieur de Monts, (*de mōng*), leader of a band of traders and settlers for Acadia. In May, they sighted land near the mouth of the river La Have, touched at several places along the coast of what is now Nova Scotia, entered and explored the Bay of Fundy (see map, p. 203), which De Monts called *la Baye Française*, (*lah-bāy'-frōng'-sāze'*). On the 24th of June, the anniversary of that memorable day on which John Cabot made his landfall on Cape Breton, they found the mouth of a river which Champlain named St. John, in honour of the festival of that Saint. Coasting to the west, they made a settlement on an island in the St. Croix River now called Dochet's Island, a few miles above St. Andrews.

[The site of this settlement is important ; because the discovery of its ruins in 1797 made it clear that this river is "the true and ancient St. Croix," a fact disputed in settling the international boundary line.] Here the little company of explorers spent the winter, suffering many hardships from cold and scurvy, so that thirty-five out of seventy-nine died, and many of the remainder were greatly weakened. In the spring of 1605, the remnant of the company removed to Port Royal, six miles west of the present town of Annapolis. De Monts had landed here the previous summer, and was greatly charmed with the beauty and safety of the place. Here he founded a colony. Land was cleared, crops put in, and Port Royal flourished until its capture and destruction by the English under Samuel Argall, in 1613. Champlain explored the coast as far south as Cape Cod.

On his third voyage to Canada, in 1608, Champlain founded Quebec. He joined the Hurons and Algonquins and made war on the Iroquois. This made the latter the bitter foes of the French. The terrible Iroquois afterwards became the allies of the English, and for many long years—until the end of the French rule—the colonists, in the cruel slaughter wreaked upon them by these savage and revengeful enemies, reaped the fruit of Champlain's too hasty act. Champlain discovered the lake which bears his name, and explored the country around the St. Lawrence and Ottawa rivers and Great Lakes. Later (in 1612), he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Canada. He aimed to improve the condition of the colony, and to make Quebec a strong fortress. He was so far successful as to defy the English fleet under Sir David Kirke, when it appeared before the city in 1628. But Quebec was captured in the following year, and Champlain was carried a prisoner to England. The English made little effort to keep their prize ; and the country was restored three years after (1632) to the French. Champlain was again appointed governor in the following year, a post which he held till his death, December 25th, 1635.

Champlain's labours in Canada, which extended over thirty years, were faithful and untiring, and they produced a lasting effect on the history and progress of the country. Six large volumes of his writings, with maps and sketches, bear witness to his industry. His courage and energy put new life into the colonists, and made

the French king and his nobles have some faith in the country. His zeal for Christianity inspired the Recollet (rek'-o-lā') and Jesuit fathers to undergo the dangers and hardships of a life in the wilderness in order to convert the savages. He gained the confidence of the Indians and proved their friend; for though he drew upon the French and their Indian allies the fury and hate of the Iroquois, it must be remembered that the Hurons and Algonquins kept faith with the French chiefly on condition that the latter would aid them in their wars against their common enemy, the Iroquois.

Acadia.—Acadia (the French Acadie, meaning, in the dialect of the Micmac Indians, a place or district,) embraced what is now Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and the east of Maine. After the destruction of Port Royal by Argall, in 1613, the French made no attempt to settle the country for twenty years. The frequent wars between England and France, and the rival claims that often arose as to the ownership of this part of North America, left little chance for a colony to take root. In 1621, James I. of England granted the country to Sir William Alexander, a Scottish knight, who sent out a few of his own countrymen as settlers to Port Royal. But in 1632 Acadia was again restored to France; Isaac de Razilly (rah-zeel'-yee) was made its governor, and for several years settlement went on rapidly. Farmers, artisans and traders were brought from France—in all about forty families. These gradually mixed with the few Scottish settlers and the former French settlers in Acadia who had not returned to France or gone to Quebec; and they became the ancestors of the Acadian French who now people various parts of the Atlantic provinces. The new settlers first occupied La Have, near the mouth of the river of the same name, on the Atlantic Ocean; but they afterwards removed to Port Royal, the site of which was soon changed to that of the present town of Annapolis. The land here was better suited for farming. The settlers prospered, increasing rapidly as the years went by, and extending themselves along the fertile valley of the Annapolis River and the low coast lands around the head of the Bay of Fundy, which continued for many years to be the centre of French population in Acadia. A few forts and trading posts, and gradually settlements, began to

appear at other convenient points. "The simple Acadian peasants" grew rich and multiplied. They had little care for what went on in the outside world. They were happy; and it mattered little to them whether the king of France or the king of England ruled over them.

Story of Lady La Tour.—At the mouth of the River St. John, there was a small fort and trading post. On the death of De Razilly, the governor of Acadia, in 1635, the Chevalier D'Aulnay (shev'-a-leer' dole'-nay'), succeeded him and had his headquarters at Port Royal. On the opposite side of the Bay of Fundy, Charles de la Tour held the fort of St. John. These men had been lieutenants of De Razilly. They had long been rivals and bitter foes, and now each was bent on destroying the other, although there was land and wealth enough for both. D'Aulnay had the favour of the French court; La Tour had some influence in England and in the English colony at Boston. But the greatest support of the latter came from his wife, whose brave defence of the fort at St. John, and whose unhappy fate, furnish one of the most interesting pages of early Acadian history.

After years of varying fortune for both, D'Aulnay succeeded in capturing La Tour's fort, on Easter Sunday, 1645. During all the previous winter, while La Tour was in Boston seeking in vain for help, his brave wife had defended the fort, inspiring her soldiers with her own heroic spirit. In February, she repulsed an attack of her enemy with such success that D'Aulnay was glad to escape with the loss of twenty-two killed and thirteen wounded. On the 13th of April following, D'Aulnay again attacked the fort, this time on the land side. For three days and three nights he made but slight headway against the little band within the fort, which, led by the brave woman, repelled every onset. But while the garrison were at prayers on Easter morning, a Swiss sentry, who had been bribed by D'Aulnay, treacherously allowed the enemy to approach; and before the besieged force thought that anything was wrong, D'Aulnay's soldiers were climbing over the walls of the fort. Even then the heroic Lady La Tour and her little company drove back the enemy with the loss of many killed and wounded. Anxious to save the lives of her soldiers, she too readily listened to terms of surrender proposed by D'Aulnay, which were that the lives of all

should be spared and they should be free to go wherever they pleased. But barely had he taken possession of the fort, when, enraged at finding how small a garrison had so long and so successfully kept him at bay, his cruelty and want of faith were shown. Every man of the devoted band was put to death, except one whose life was spared on condition that he should act as the hangman of his comrades. Lady La Tour was forced to witness the terrible sight with a rope around her neck. Thus was one page of the early history of Acadia made bright by the brave deeds of a heroine; the next was fouled by the cowardly act of a base and pitiless foe. The unfortunate lady, broken hearted, died three weeks after and was buried near the scene of her glory and her misfortune. Her only child, a little girl, was sent to France, where, it is supposed, she died soon after. Her husband was ruined and became for a time an outcast. His rival did not long enjoy the fruits of his victory. He was drowned a few years after (1650) in the river near Port Royal. But the sequel to this tragic story robs it of some of its romance. La Tour was put in possession of Acadia by the king of France and made its governor; and to settle the claims of D'Aulnay's widow he married her. The capture of Acadia by an English fleet in 1654 did not disturb him. He readily became an English subject, and was permitted to retain his possessions. He shortly after sold his rights; but lived in the country until his death, in 1666. In the following year Acadia was restored to France. At that time it contained not more than four hundred and fifty settlers, four-fifths of whom were at Port Royal.

The Jesuit Fathers.—Equally slow was the progress made on the banks of the St. Lawrence. The colony of Canada, or New France, numbered scarcely 2,000 people (1663). The ravages of the Indians and the greed of the fur traders kept back settlement. The strong hand of Champlain had preserved some appearance of order, but after his death there seemed to be no guiding power. The five governors who succeeded him were not able to stem the tide setting against the young colony. The Jesuit priests, by their brave and unselfish efforts to convert the savages, saved the country in the days of its greatest peril. By night and by day, amid the frost and snows of winter or the heat of summer, they went boldly among the Algonquins, the Hurons, and even the savage

Iroquois ; braving famine, fatigue and danger to carry the message of the Cross to those who had never felt its gentle influence. They never gave up their aim ; their courage never forsook them. At first they were mocked and despised, or no attention was paid to their words. Gradually their simple and pious lives began to win respect. The Hurons, more docile and intelligent than the others, accepted their teachings more freely ; and soon very many of that nation, numbering, when the French came to Canada, some 20,000 souls, were baptized and became Christians. The Iroquois hated, and did not trust, the French. The few bold missionaries who, taking their lives in their hands, sought out the encampments of these fierce people, were cruelly tortured and put to death. But these zealous and patient men seemed to accept suffering as their lot. Their duty was plain. No toil or danger disheartened them, and death had no terrors for them.

The story of the French-Indian wars is woven with the story of the missions. The Iroquois never forgave Champlain and the French for making war on them ; and they hated the Hurons and Algonquins with greater hatred than ever because they were the friends and allies of the French. There is no need here to recite the terrible tales of misery and bloodshed : how men were killed while at work in the fields ; how women and children were carried to captivity and torture ; how hundreds died from hunger and disease. The cruelty and thirst for blood of the terrible Iroquois seemed never to be satisfied. To add to the dread caused by these fierce foes, firearms had been sold to them by the Dutch settlers on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange (Albany) ; and they began to use them with such skill that they had a great advantage over their Indian enemies. Tribe after tribe of the Hurons was destroyed, the Jesuit teachers among them killed, and in the end the Hurons, as a nation, ceased to exist. The missions which had been founded among them with such toil and suffering, left only their story and an undying example among men for all ages. Such a record would adorn the annals of any nation.

A single incident may show the heroic spirit of these times, equal to that of the Greeks at Thermopylae, or the Romans under Horatius. The colony of Montreal, which had been founded as a mission in 1642, was threatened in 1660 with an attack by the Iroquois,

who were coming from the south and west. The colony was small and feeble. To save it, sixteen young men, led by the Sieur des Ormeaux (see-ur'-daze-or'-mō'), resolved to sacrifice their lives in its defence. They made their wills, confessed their sins, received the sacrament, and took a sad farewell of their friends. Their plan was to hold possession of an old fort near the Long Sault (sō) rapids on the Ottawa, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. Joined by a few Christian Hurons and Algonquins, they awaited at the rapids the attack of the Iroquois. Soon these came in their canoes, two hundred strong; and for days went on the unequal struggle. Many of the Indian allies went over to the enemy; but they found no mercy, and met the death their treachery deserved. Finally, want of rest and food told more on the heroic band than the attacks of the savages. Of the four who were left to continue the struggle, three were mortally wounded. These were put to death by fire, their savage enemies dancing and yelling around them. The fourth was taken alive and kept for torture. The story was carried to Montreal by three Indians. The little colony was saved. The blood of the heroic men was not shed in vain. The loss to the Indians of so many of their braves, and, more than that, the spirit of men who could face such odds, caused them to give up the attack and turn sullenly away from their intended prey.

CHAPTER III.

FRENCH RULE.

Canada a Crown Colony.—The government of Canada by fur-trading companies and their agents had kept back the growth of the colony. Now there was to be a change. The charter of the "One Hundred Associates" was taken from them. In 1663 Canada was placed directly under the government of the French king and became a Crown Colony. It was ruled by the "Custom of Paris"; that is, by the same laws which prevailed in France. This change was brought about chiefly by the influence of the able and zealous Abbé Laval, who had spent several years in Canada, looking into the abuses and the almost lawless condition of the colony. In future the power was to be placed in the hands of

a governor, whose duty was to carry on the wars of the colony; a bishop, to rule the church; and an intendant, to whom was entrusted all legal and business affairs. These three officers formed the executive or acting members of a council who carried out the orders of the King of France. The members of the council—at first five, afterwards twelve—were appointed by the governor and bishop. The people had no voice whatever in the making of their own laws. If they had complaints to make or disputes to be settled, they laid them before the courts. These courts were held at Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal. If the complaints or disputes were trifling they were settled by the seigneurs (sayn-yurs). These were holders of large tracts of land, chiefly along the St. Lawrence River, who paid the king in military service and by bringing out settlers. So rapidly did the colony improve under this new order of things that in a few years the population numbered over 4,000 souls. Settlers came, bringing with them sheep, cattle, horses, farming tools. Soldiers who were brought out to carry on the war against the Indians were afterwards led to settle on tracts of land granted to them and their officers. As there were a great many unmarried men in the colony, wives were provided for them by sending out young women from France.

Frequent quarrels arose between governor, bishop and intendant as to the rights of each; and this was to be looked for where the chief power was in the hands of three persons instead of one. Talon, the intendant, was a man who worked hard for the good of the colony. He was wise and prudent, and so far as he was able dealt justly with rich and poor alike. Bishop Laval was a man of great wisdom and influence, and devoted to the church. He founded the Seminary of Quebec, which afterwards grew into Laval University. It was the first regular school in Canada. Both Laval and Talon held their offices for a long time. It was not so with the governors. They were frequently changed. The first, De Mezy (de māz'-ee), could not agree with the bishop and was recalled, but died before the summons reached Quebec.

The second governor was De Courcelles (de-koor'-sell'); and with him came the Marquis de Tracy, as the viceroy of the whole of Canada. Under these leaders a vigorous war was undertaken

against the Iroquois. Three forts were built along the Richelieu (reesh'-e-loo') River, the usual highway by which these savages entered Canada to attack and ravage the settlements along the St. Lawrence. But the Iroquois would not risk a battle; and the French, after passing through hundreds of miles of country and burning the villages of the Indians, returned to Quebec. Fear led the Iroquois to make a peace (1666), which lasted for eighteen years. De Tracy returned to France in 1667.

The Times of Frontenac (fron'-te-nak').—The long cherished dream of the French to build up a great empire in North America came near being realized when Louis de Buade, Count de Frontenac, was sent to Canada as its governor in 1672. He was an able soldier. His courage and activity were marvellous. His brilliant career in the French army, which he entered at the age of seventeen, gave hope that he was the man who could build up the failing fortunes of France in the west. And had his tact as a leader of men been equal to his genius as a soldier, it might have been so. But his proud, fiery temper, strong self-will, and hatred of those who set up their will against his, always kept him in trouble with the council at Quebec. Laval and Talon, the men who should have worked with him, and whom he should have made his firm friends, were driven to oppose him; and the council chamber at Quebec was often the scene of petty and unseemly quarrels. The strife at one time grew so bitter that the king recalled Talon and sent out Duchesneau (du-shay'-nō) as intendant in his place.

Frontenac's great object from the first was to bring the trade of the far west to Quebec. Much of it had been diverted to the south, to Albany and New York, by the English, who were now in possession of the country from the St. Croix to the James River. During the past fifty years they had planted colonies everywhere between these bounds; and now the English population in America outnumbered the French more than ten to one. Nor is this a matter of wonder. While the English cut down forests, tilled the land and made friends with the Iroquois, the French were at war with these powerful savages, and liked better to hunt and engage in the fur trade than to till the soil. But the English, who occupied the old Dutch colony of New Netherlands—captured by the English

in 1664, and named New York—had pushed themselves northward, and, with the help of the Iroquois, were fast getting possession of the fur trade of the Great West. To regain this trade, protect Canada from the raids of the Indians, and make a base for further discovery westward, Frontenac built a strong fort at the east end of Lake Ontario, where now stands the city of Kingston. A trading post had been established here some years before, as well as at Sault Ste. Marie (mar-ee'), between Lakes Huron and Superior. Father Marquette (mar-ket') and a trader named Jolliet (zhoh'-e-ā') had gone west until they reached the Mississippi (in latitude 42° 30'). They floated for a long distance down the river, but returned before they found its mouth, or that long wished for passage by water to China, in the existence of which men had not yet ceased to believe. It was reserved for another French explorer to set the question at rest. La Salle (lah-sal') passed down the Mississippi in 1681 to the Gulf of Mexico, claiming possession of the country on both banks for Louis XIV., King of France, and naming it Louisiana.

Frontenac's power over the Indians preserved peace for years; but quarrels at Quebec became so frequent that the king recalled him in 1682. De la Barre, his successor, thought more of getting money than of governing the colony. He made a weak attempt to chastise the Iroquois, who were again on the war-path against the French; but was glad to make peace with them and beat a hasty retreat to Quebec. He was replaced by the Marquis de Denonville (den'-ong-veel'). The latter, by a cowardly act of treachery, once more turned the rage and hatred of the Iroquois against the French. He seized a number of their chiefs, whom he invited to meet him at Fort Frontenac, kept them in chains with little or no food for several days, and then sent them as slaves to France. He followed this up by invading the Indian country, burning villages and destroying fields. The savages brooded over their wrongs in silence, until they were ready to strike. And the blow was terrible when it fell. Under the cover of darkness and a raging storm (August 4th, 1689), 1,200 Iroquois crept close to the village of Lachine (lah-sheen'), six miles from Montreal. Just before dawn, they fell upon their sleeping victims, slaughtering men, women and children, burning the dwellings, and carrying

away to torture wretched captives. Montreal looked on helplessly. For weeks its wretched inhabitants saw, with grief and rage, the country for many miles around laid waste, buildings fired and savages dancing round the blazing ruins ; miserable captives tortured in sight of their own countrymen, the taunts and yells of their inhuman tormentors drowning their cries for help. At last, on the approach of winter, and with no chance of more victims to appease their fury, the savages withdrew. The forest hid them and the helpless captives who were carried to untold misery and torture ; and Montreal once more breathed freely. It is thought that not less than four hundred victims perished by the "Massacre of Lachine." The French, in dismay, destroyed Fort Frontenac, left their posts on the western lakes, and sought refuge in the forts of Montreal, Three Rivers and Quebec, which were in reality all the possessions that remained to the French at this crisis.

The strong hand of Frontenac alone could save the colony, and now in his seventieth year he readily undertook the task. After making peace with the Iroquois and restoring the confidence of the Hurons and other Indian allies of the French, he prepared to strike a blow against the English for the part which he thought they had taken in the late outbreak of the Iroquois. Three war parties of the French, with their Indian allies, were fitted out to attack the English settlements to the south : one against Albany, which reached Schenectady (sken-ek'-ta-dee) instead ; the second against the settlements of New Hampshire, and the third against those of Maine. All were successful. Men, women and children, thinking of no danger, were set upon and cruelly murdered, or given over to the Indians for torture, or, escaping into the forests, perished from cold and starvation.

These cruelties roused the English to action ; but it may be said, to their credit, that they made no attempt to revenge themselves by the murder of innocent settlers. A fleet was sent out from Boston under Sir William Phips, which captured Port Royal and all the French forts in Acadia (1690). This part of Canada, during the late troublous years on the St. Lawrence, had been left to take care of itself, or to be plundered by the greed of fur-traders. Baron St. Castin, who married an Indian princess, lived like a feudal lord in his strong fortress at Penobscot, and grew rich by the fur trade.

Villebon (veel'-bōng'), a governor of Acadia, from his stronghold on the St. John River, incited the Indians to plunder and murder the settlers on the New England borders.

Sir William Phips, after the capture of Port Royal, sailed to Quebec, destroying on his way the French posts on the island of Newfoundland and along the lower St. Lawrence. But his force was not strong enough to take the city, and he returned to Boston. A force sent against Montreal in the same year (1690) also failed, through sickness and lack of supplies. France had now a firm hold on Canada. Frontenac was at the height of his glory. Only the Iroquois were proud and unsubdued. These he determined to crush by one last grand effort. Gathering the strength of the whole colony, he led 2,200 men into the vast forests of northern New York, amid the heats of July and August (1691). Day after day they marched on, with the greatest toil and difficulty. The aged Frontenac was carried in a chair. But the story ended as before. No foe appeared; the hidden provisions were sought out and destroyed, and the fields with their standing crops were laid waste. Frontenac returned to Quebec, and sent an account of his "victory" to the king. The treaty of Ryswick (riz'-wik), in 1697, put an end to the war for a short time. This was known in the English colonies as "King William's War," for William, Prince of Orange, was on the throne of England. In the following year the great Frontenac died at Quebec, in his 78th year.

Queen Anne's War.—Peace did not last long. In fact border raids, petty strife between rival traders, and the slaughter of unoffending settlers and burning their homes, went on nearly all the time, whether the English and French were at war in Europe or not. It scarcely seems possible to us that perhaps near the very spot where now stand peaceful and happy homes, there were scenes of terror and suffering; husbands and fathers butchered while defending their wives and children who were often carried away to torture and slow death. The smoking embers told the heart-rending story for a few days; a black ruin marked the spot for a few months or years; then the flowers bloomed. The trees grew and put forth their leaves, and the birds sang in them as before. The boys and girls who read these pages will never be called upon to witness such scenes in our country again; but it is well that they should know of the toil,

suffering and hardship of its founders, and be themselves willing to undergo, in a less degree, trials that may come to them. This is the duty of the patriot.

War again broke out between the English and French, in 1702. This was known as "Queen Anne's War," because it lasted during the whole of that monarch's reign. De Callières (kal'-e-air') had succeeded Frontenac as the governor of Canada. He made a strong treaty with the Iroquois and other Indians, and a new French settlement was founded in the west, at Detroit (1701). When the war began, the Marquis de Vaudreuil (vô'-drô'yé) became governor (1703)—a strong leader, who ruled Canada well for twenty-two years. As the English and French in Europe had enough to do to fight their own battles, the war in America was left largely to the colonists. English fishermen had been driven from the coasts of Acadia. English settlers had been murdered or driven from their farms in New England by raiding bands of French and Indians. In 1704, Col. Church was sent from Boston to Acadia with a large force to avenge these cruelties; and bitter and merciless was the revenge he took on the inhabitants, most of whom were not the real offenders. From Penobscot to Chignecto nearly every French village was burned to the ground, means of defence and livelihood destroyed, the inhabitants forced to seek shelter in the woods, and the Indians shot down whenever they came within musket range of the foe. Port Royal escaped, but was taken a few years later (1710)—this time to remain in possession of the English. The name was changed to Annapolis Royal, in honour of Queen Anne. Next year expeditions were fitted out for the capture of Quebec and Montreal, but failed again on account of being badly planned and poorly led. The treaty of Utrecht (you'-trekt), in 1713, closed the war. France gave up her claim of sovereignty over the Iroquois, Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson's Bay Territory, but kept the Island of St. John, Cape Breton, and all her possessions on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. The latter country had peace for over forty years, or as nearly as it was possible to have peace in those unquiet times. The colony was very well ruled by successive governors and intendants; but the common people had no education, and nothing to say in the making of their laws. There was little to

encourage farm life. The land had been granted by the king to the seigneurs. These portioned it out in lots to men who were willing to work it and pay them a small rent, either in money or produce. Trade, manufactures and ship-building were encouraged. The colony made and exported such products as cloth, salt, rope, staves, tar, flour, pork, tobacco, and a few other articles. Roads were opened up, and mails began to be carried. But the country west of the St. Lawrence was a wilderness, with a few trading posts here and there, and forts at Kingston, Niagara and Detroit. The French claimed the whole country west of the Alleghany Mountains, and wished to confine the English to the narrow strip along the Atlantic seaboard. They foresaw that a struggle would soon arise for the possession of North America, and began to strengthen their forts on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, and build new ones on their widely extended territory—one at Louisbourg, one on Lake Champlain, and another on Lake George, and several in the Ohio valley.

Strife in Acadia.—But if the country along the St. Lawrence was quiet, this could not be said of Acadia. The inhabitants never expected the English to remain masters of the country, and refused to take the oath of allegiance. It was urged by the French that the name Acadia stood only for the peninsula of Nova Scotia. The Acadians, if left to themselves, would no doubt have submitted to English rule; but there were French agents from Quebec continually among them and the Indians, creating disturbance. The latter, for years, in what was known as the Indian War, kept the country in constant alarm, killing, burning and carrying off victims and property. At last the Indians were taught a lesson. A large encampment near the Kennebec River was surrounded by the English in 1724. No quarter was given. Six chiefs and many of their subjects were killed. The war was at an end, and the Indians of Acadia were quiet for years.

After the giving up of Newfoundland and Acadia to the English, the French flocked to the quiet bays and fertile lands of Cape Breton (Isle Royale). This with St. John (now Prince Edward Island), and the coast of the mainland as far north as Gaspé (gas'-pay'), had been formerly granted by the King of France to Nicolas Denys. While La Tour and D'Aulnay were fighting and

bringing debt and ruin upon each other, he was busily engaged in the fur trade and fisheries. On Cape Breton the French built the fortress of Louisbourg, as strong as wood and stone could make it. Lying between Newfoundland and Acadia, and near the ocean highway to the New England colonies, it was a constant menace to the commerce of the latter.

War was again declared between England and France, in 1744; and from their vantage ground at Louisbourg the French sent a force to capture Annapolis Royal, expecting to be joined by the Acadians. But the Acadians remained quiet; and, aid arriving from Boston, the siege was raised. The English colonists at Boston then gathered a force consisting of 4,000 untrained men under Governor Shirley and William Pepperell, to capture Louisbourg. At Canso they were joined by a small English fleet under Commodore Warren. Although Louisbourg was defended by 2,000 French, it was surprised and fell almost without a blow (June 16th, 1745). A great fleet and army under the Duc d'Anville was sent out from France to recapture the stronghold; but shipwreck and disaster attended this ill-fated expedition, until, in the end, it was so weakened that it could accomplish nothing. Peace gave to the French what they could not gain by war. Louisbourg was given up to France by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (āks'-lah-shah-pel'), in 1748; an act which greatly displeased the English colonists of Massachusetts, who had sacrificed lives and money in its capture.

Halifax Founded.—But it was seen that to make Acadia an English colony something more was needed than to take and destroy forts, and carry on petty wars against French and Indians. The country must have English settlers. In June, 1749, there came to Chebucto (now Halifax) Harbour a large company of immigrants, about half of whom were disbanded officers, soldiers, and sailors of the Royal Navy, with their wives and children—more than 2,500 persons in all—under the command of Colonel Edward Cornwallis. The English Government sent supplies to maintain the settlers for a year; grants of land were given them, and they were provided with tools for farming and weapons to defend themselves against the attacks of their enemies. A flourishing colony soon arose along the fine land-locked harbour, which had long been known as a refuge for fishing vessels. It was named Halifax, in honour of Lord

Halifax, who had aided and encouraged the planting of the colony; and Cornwallis became its first governor. Late in the summer another hundred settlers arrived; and in August of the following year (1750) three hundred more, who founded the town of Dartmouth, on the opposite side of the harbour. In the following spring (1751), a large body of German immigrants arrived; but as they could not speak English, and knew little of English life, most of them were moved westward and founded the town of Lunenburg (1753) on Malagash Bay, where there had been for years a small French settlement. Five years later (1758), the colonies in Nova Scotia asked for representative government, which was granted, and the first house of assembly met at Halifax.

Stirring up Strife.—In the meantime the colony had not been free from the attacks of the Indians, who were urged on by French agents. Among the latter was a missionary from Quebec, Joseph Le Loutre (loo'-tr), who for nearly twenty years worked among the Acadian settlements and the wigwams of the Indians. In his zeal for France, and his hatred of the English, he forgot his duties as a priest and helped to keep up continual alarm and strife.

By the treaty of peace between the English and French in 1713, the boundary line had not been clearly settled; and as time went on the southern parts of what is now the province of New Brunswick, especially Westmorland county, came to be looked upon by the French as their own. To the fertile meadows north of the Missiquash river, now the boundary line between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and to the Island of St. John, went those who would not submit to English rule, and those who were persuaded by Le Loutre and others to seek new homes, where, it was held out to them, they would enjoy their rights as French subjects.

Struggle for Mastery.—On the Isthmus of Chignecto, along the little river Missiquash, there took place during the next few years (1750-55) a struggle for mastery between the French and English. On the northern side of this river, on a hill overlooking the entire country, was built the French fort Beauséjour (bō'-say-zhoor') by La Corne, whom the governor of Canada had sent with a body of troops to Chignecto. About two miles south, and across the Missiquash, lay the prosperous Acadian village, Beaubassin. Major

Lawrence was sent from Halifax to destroy the fort. But his force was too small, and he withdrew. On the return of the English, the inhabitants of the village were forced by Le Loutre to burn their houses and take refuge around the walls of the fort, which were slowly rising. The English built Fort Lawrence between the ruins of the village and the Missiquash river. Major Lawrence became Governor Lawrence, and Colonel Monckton took command of the English forces, which were increased by a large body of men sent from Boston. After a vigorous siege the French fort, defended by Vergor, who had taken the place of La Corne, was taken (June 16th, 1755). Beauséjour became Fort Cumberland. Le Loutre escaped and fled to Quebec, but he was captured by the English on his way to France, and kept a prisoner until the end of the war.

Braddock's Defeat.—While the siege of Beauséjour was drawing to a close, a stirring scene was being enacted in the west. The French had determined to drive out the English, who were making their way west into the Ohio valley. The Marquis Duquesne (du-kāne') had been appointed governor of Canada in 1752, and he pressed the English with such vigour and success that they were obliged to retire. Although it was a time of peace in Europe between England and France, it was not so in America, as the events in Acadia have shown. Major-General Braddock, a brave but headstrong leader, was sent out from England, in 1755, with a force of over 2,000 men to capture Fort Duquesne in the Ohio valley. On the 9th of July, as he was entering a defile in the forest within a few miles of the fort, the French and Indians from behind the trees poured a murderous fire into the English ranks, which soon fell into confusion. The soldiers, unused to that kind of warfare, fell easy victims to the deadly aim of their hidden foes. Braddock fell mortally wounded, and soon nearly eight hundred of his men lay dead and wounded. The entire army must have perished but for the presence of a small force of Virginian colonists and Indians, led by Colonel George Washington, who adopted the same style of fighting as their foes and thus covered the retreat of the English. This disaster left the French for a while in possession of the Ohio valley. Braddock's defeat was offset, in a measure, by a victory gained over the French at Lake George by General Johnson, at the head of a body of colonials and Mohawk Indians.

Exile of the Acadians.—A tragic event closed the memorable year 1755. It might be supposed, or at least hoped, that the fall of Fort Beauséjour and the departure of their worst enemy, Le Loutre, would show the Acadians the folly of further resistance to the English. But the defeat of Braddock in the Ohio valley, and the bold and defiant attitude of the French at Quebec and Louisbourg, encouraged them to hope that Acadia would soon be restored to France. During the summer of 1755, delegates were summoned from the centres of population to Halifax to take the oath of allegiance as laid down by the English. But they refused, and preparations were at once made to remove the Acadians from the peninsula of Nova Scotia. The stern resolve of Governor Lawrence was carried out. Late in August, the English ships, commanded by Colonel Winslow, of Massachusetts, reached Minas Basin with troops. The unfortunate people were summoned from the harvest fields, their dwellings burned, and themselves, with such movable property as they could take with them, forced on board the vessels and conveyed to the English colonies to the south. Some found their way even as far as Louisiana and the West Indies. In the confusion of embarkation, wives were occasionally separated from husbands, and fathers and mothers from children. Never was a British soldier sent on a more cruel errand; never has a sadder tale of suffering and misery been recorded. The story of Raynal and Longfellow's poem "Evangeline," give the details of the dark picture—coloured in one case by race hatred, in the other by the poet's fancy. The reality must have been full enough of woe and bitterness.

Between 7,000 and 8,000 persons were removed. Hundreds escaped into the forests and found their way to the St. John River and to the bays and rivers along the Gulf of St. Lawrence and to the Island of St. John. Many of those sent to the English colonies south after a time found their way back and took up their abode in various parts of Nova Scotia, for the most part in places bordering on the open sea—in what are now the counties of Digby, Yarmouth, Antigonish, and on the island of Cape Breton. To settle in their old homes on the Annapolis, at Minas and Chignecto, was denied them.

We could wish that it were not possible to write this sad story, a story that would draw pity from the hardest heart. But we must

remember there is another side to the picture. War is cruel enough at any time ; and these people lived in times when hate and strife and burnings were too common. It was natural for them to hear with joy the tidings of French victory, to aid and be spies for their own countrymen, and even to join in battle when they could safely do so, and when a leader in the sacred garb of a priest taught them it was their duty. For these reasons it was just as natural for the English to regard them as more dangerous than open enemies. The English, though the ruling power in Acadia, were much weaker in numbers than the French, and felt that their own safety—even their lives—depended on having at least a friendly people on lands which had become theirs by a solemn treaty.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CONQUEST OF CANADA.

Bad Condition of Affairs.—And now took place the final struggle for the mastery of a continent. The “Seven Years’ War” between England and France began in 1756, and at its close France gave up Canada and the vast territory in North America which she had claimed by right of discovery. The greed of adventurers and fur traders in the early history of Canada had been succeeded in later years by rapacity and disorder in the government at Quebec. The salaries given to officials by the French government were so small that all kinds of dishonesty and fraud were used to gain wealth. The intendant, Bigot (bee’-gō), who was appointed in 1748, set the example which those under him were not slow to follow ; and the people, the soldiers and even the Indians were victims of the greed of those in power.

During the first two years of the war in America, English affairs were so badly managed that disaster and defeat succeeded each other with startling rapidity. The Earl of Loudon and General Abercrombie, who were appointed leaders, were totally unfit for the position. On the other hand, the French general, the Marquis de Montcalm, was a brave and accomplished soldier. He conducted the war against the English in west and northern New York with great skill and success, stained, in many instances, by the massacre

of men, women and children, the work of his Indian allies, which he tried in vain to prevent.

A Change for the Better.—The ill success of the British arms both in America and Europe led to a change of government. The famous William Pitt, England's "Great Commoner," undertook the conduct of the war. He soon improved the condition of the army in America, and appointed those as leaders in whom he and the soldiers had confidence. Campaigns were planned, and every means taken to insure success. General Amherst was appointed commander-in-chief, and under him were the brave Wolfe and other brilliant officers. Admiral Boscawen commanded the fleet. The first place to fall (1758) was Louisbourg, the "Key of the St. Lawrence." This great fortress was in a much better condition to stand a siege than in 1745. Fourteen ships of war, carrying 600 guns and manned by 3,000 men, lay in the harbour. The town was defended by a strong garrison, and was well supplied with provisions and military stores. But the superior armament and forces of the English, the genius of Boscawen and Amherst, and the ardour of the gallant Wolfe bore down all opposition. The garrison of 5,000 men surrendered after a siege of seven weeks. The event was celebrated with great rejoicing in England and her colonies. After the capture of Louisbourg, Col. Monckton reduced the French forts on the St. John River; and the Island of St. John (Prince Edward), with other posts in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was taken by the English. The same year the English again met a reverse in New York, where Gen. Abercrombie was defeated by Montcalm, with a loss of 2,000 men, including the gallant Lord Howe, in an attack on Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain. Many Scottish Highlanders, who for the first time fought in the wars of Britain, were killed. But the English attacked and destroyed Fort Frontenac. Fort Duquesne, the scene of Braddock's defeat, was taken, and its name changed to Fort Pitt. The city of Pittsburg now stands on the site of the fort.

Events of 1759.—Pitt's great scheme for completing the conquest of Canada, and thus bringing all North America under the British flag, was now to be realized. As soon as the spring of 1759 opened, three large war parties were on foot: General Amherst advanced against the forts on Lake Champlain; Generals Prideaux (preé-dō) and Sir William Johnson attacked Fort Niagara; while General

Wolfe proceeded against Quebec. In July, Amherst captured forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga after some brisk fighting, the French retiring to Montreal. During the same month General Prideaux was killed in the siege of Niagara, but the fort was taken by Sir William Johnson. It was intended that these forces should advance against Montreal, and, if necessary, assist Wolfe in the capture of Quebec; but Amherst spent the remainder of the season in strengthening the forts on Lake Champlain.

Wolfe and Montcalm.—In the meantime, General Wolfe had left Louisbourg, and, joined by a fleet sent out from England under Admiral Saunders, appeared before Quebec. On June 27th, he landed his forces, between 8,000 and 9,000 men, on the island of Orleans, a few miles below the frowning citadel of Quebec. Then began the struggle for the possession of that famous stronghold. From his fortress the brave Montcalm, wary and alert, watched every movement of the foe. Within and around Quebec was an army of 14,000 men; the fortifications bristled with artillery; and the walls of the city and the earthworks, thrown up for miles on the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, between the St. Charles and Montmorency, had been strengthened in every possible way. Montcalm had performed the part of an able and skilful leader. He saw that his weakness was in his army, which consisted largely of Canadian militia, ill fed, badly clothed, badly paid, the results of the cheating and fraud of Bigot and his officials. He saw that these would be no match for the soldiers of Wolfe; and he kept within his fortress, knowing that if he could keep the English at bay for a few months, the ice in the St. Lawrence and the storms of winter would do their work.

Wolfe had under him such leaders as Monckton, Townshend and Murray; and an army who adored him, and whom he proudly called "the best in the world." He was a host in himself. Entering the army at the age of fifteen, he had won fame and promotion on many a hard-fought field, until now, a major-general, at the age of thirty-three, he stood before the strongest fortress in the New World, which had repeatedly defied the attacks of the English, and opposed to the cautious and brilliant Montcalm, the ablest general that France had ever sent to America.

Siege of Quebec.—Wolfe, weakened by a disease that pro-

mised a fatal ending, did not shrink from the task before him. Batteries were erected on the heights of Levis (lev'-ee'), opposite Quebec, and guns played continually on the city and shattered its walls. But the French, secure behind their earthworks, defied every attempt of Wolfe to land troops. The British fleet could afford but little assistance. Five weeks after his arrival before Quebec, Wolfe made an attack on the French position from his headquarters below the Montmorency river, but was compelled to



THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC, 1759.

withdraw with a loss of nearly 500 men. This reverse threw the general into a fever; and as he lay on his sick bed during the month of August, with little or no progress being made in the siege, a plan was proposed, it is said, by one of his staff, for the capture of the city. This was to effect a landing on the north side of the river, three miles above Quebec, and, by a narrow path that had been found out, climb the steep bank to the level plain west of the city. During the days of early September, every precaution was taken to keep the plan a secret and insure its success.

An Anxious Night.—On the night of the 12th September, Wolfe, still suffering from the weakness in which the fever had left

him, carried out the daring plan, the details of which he had been carefully preparing. For days before, Montcalm had watched the massing of British soldiers at points up the river; but General Bougainville (boo'-gan-veel'), with a force of nearly 2,000 men, was guarding the river as far as Cap Rouge (kap' roozh'), seven miles above the city, and he felt no uneasiness. His attention was diverted by the vigorous cannonade kept up by the fleet and from the heights of Levis, and by the attempt to land troops at Beauport Shoals, close to the fortress of Quebec. Aided by the darkness of the night, Wolfe and his men dropped silently down the river with the current, until they reached the little nook, now known as Wolfe's Cove. The challenges of the French sentries along the river, who mistook them for men bringing provisions from Montreal, were cleverly answered from one of the front boats by a young officer who spoke French readily. The guards at the top of the path on the heights were overpowered and secured before they could give the alarm. Company after company silently and steadily climbed up the path during the early hours of the morning of that day which was to prove the most eventful in Canadian history; while the roar of English cannon in front of Quebec kept the attention of the unsuspecting Montcalm. When day dawned, Wolfe with about 4,000 men stood in battle order on the Plains of Abraham.

Battle of the Plains of Abraham. — Montcalm accepted the gage of battle thrown down by his dauntless rival, and hurried out from the city with a force much larger than that under Wolfe. The armies drew near each other, the French firing as they advanced. Wolfe ordered his men to reserve their fire until within forty yards, when they poured such destructive volleys into the ranks of the French that they broke and retreated. Wolfe was wounded in the wrist in the beginning of the action, and soon after received a fatal wound in the breast while leading his Grenadiers to the charge. He was just able to hear the tidings that the French ran, which came a few minutes later, when he exclaimed—"Then God be praised! I die happy." Then the spirit of the gallant soldier passed from the frail body. How fitting to such a death are the words of Gray's *Elegy*, which he had recited while floating down the river the night before :

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

The brave Montcalm, trying in vain to rally his beaten soldiers, received his death wound, and died on the following day (September 14th). He was buried beneath the floor of the Ursuline Convent, at Quebec; and it is worthy of note that his grave was partly formed by the hole made by the bursting of a shell during the siege. The remains of Wolfe were taken to England and buried in Westminster Abbey. A monument, overlooking the field of battle, bears this testimony to the fallen leaders, victor and vanquished: "Valour gave a common death, history a common fame, and posterity a common monument."

After the Battle.—Five days after the battle Quebec surrendered (Sept. 18th, 1759). Next spring, General Lévis, who had assumed command of the French forces, advanced from Montreal with 10,000 troops to retake the city. General Murray, who had succeeded Wolfe as commander at Quebec, met him to the west of the Plains of Abraham with an army of 3,000 men, but was defeated and forced to take refuge within the walls of the city, where he was closely besieged by the French. A British fleet brought relief. In July of this year (1760), a French fleet coming to aid Quebec was attacked by a British fleet in the Bay of Chaleur. The French vessels, driven up the Restigouche to Petit Roche (pet'-ty rōsh'), nearly opposite where Campbellton now stands, were captured or destroyed. This was the last battle of the war.

Interest now centred around Montreal, to which city the combined forces of Amherst and Johnson were now advancing. Murray went from Quebec to join them. Soon a force of 16,000 British troops invested Montreal, which surrendered on the 8th September, 1760. By the Treaty of Paris, signed February 10th, 1763, Canada was given up to Great Britain. All that France retained of the vast territory which she had claimed in America were the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the Newfoundland coast.

CHAPTER V.

THE FAR WEST.

Early Discovery.—Our story thus far has been chiefly of Acadia and the St. Lawrence valley; and rightly so, for here took place those stirring scenes which make the early history of our country

so full of interest. But the provinces by the sea, and those by the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, do not make up the Canada which our boys and girls should know about, and which they should learn to think of as *their* country. There is the Great West, with its boundless fertile prairies, the lofty summits of the Rockies, and that rich belt of country between them and the Pacific. Let us take a brief glance at the early history of our Far West.

There are stories that the Chinese and Japanese in very early ages found their way across the Pacific and touched the western shores of North America. No historical records support these statements, and no attention therefore can be given to them here. After the discovery of America by Columbus, the Spaniards found their way round Cape Horn and across the Isthmus of Panama to the Pacific Ocean. Little by little they followed the coast northward. Then came Sir Francis Drake (1578-79), who reached the forty-eighth parallel of latitude—perhaps further. In 1592, Juan de Fuca, a Greek navigator in the Spanish service, discovered the strait which bears his name, and which now forms the western limit of the boundary between Canada and the United States. In 1778, Capt. Cook, sent out by the British Government, explored the coast of British Columbia as far north as the passage between Asia and North America, which he named Bering Straits, in honour of the Danish navigator who in 1748 sailed along that coast while in the service of Russia. The valuable cargo of furs, and the stories of the wealth of the country which Cook's sailors brought to England, led to further discoveries and trading voyages. In 1780, a British fur station was established at Nootka Sound, on the west coast of Vancouver Island, named after Captain George Vancouver, who made a complete survey of the Island (1792-94) for the British Government. This station was seized by the Spaniards in 1789, on the ground that it was Spanish territory, but was restored in 1795, with full payment of damages. Trading was continued by the British, but no settlement was attempted until many years after.

Hudson's Bay Company.—Hudson's Bay, the great inland sea of British North America, was discovered by Henry Hudson, an Englishman. He made several voyages in search of the Northwest Passage, on one of which (1609), while in the employ of the

Dutch India Company, he discovered Hudson River, which led to the founding of the colony of New Netherlands by the Dutch, a few years later. In 1610, in an English ship, he sailed through the strait and into the bay both of which now bear his name. He wintered in the bay, suffering great hardships. In the spring his sailors mutinied, and set Hudson and his son adrift in an open boat. Neither was heard of afterwards. The French claimed this territory as a part of Canada, and it was named in the treaty which restored Canada to France in the reign of Charles I. (1632). But this did not prevent Charles II., who was little bound by treaties or promises, from granting a charter to the Hudson's Bay Company, giving possession and a monopoly of the fur-trade of all the lands (Prince Rupert's Land) drained by the rivers which flow into the bay. Several weak attempts were made by the French to drive out the English; but in 1713 the country was given over to the English by the Treaty of Utrecht. The great Hudson's Bay Company held full sway over the larger portion of British North America for 200 years, until in 1870 all its rights were made over to the Dominion of Canada.

The Company had full powers to govern the great extent of country it claimed, and to make war on the Indians; but these were managed so well that they gave no trouble and became the profitable servants of their employers. Several rival fur companies were formed in time, the greatest being the Northwest Fur Company, with headquarters at Montreal. In the office of the latter company was a young Scotsman named Alexander Mackenzie. For eight years he was stationed at one of the forts on Lake Athabasca, where he formed plans of discovery in the great wilderness beyond. In 1789, he started on a journey northward with four canoes, and a party of twelve bold spirits like himself. For six weeks he threaded the vast network of rivers and lakes to the north, and came to the Arctic Ocean through the great river which bears his name. Three years after he made a similar journey over the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, returning as before to the starting point on Lake Athabasca. Mackenzie was the first explorer to reach the Arctic and the Pacific by an overland journey from the east. In the years following, other journeys of discovery were made by bold explorers, opening up, through

the great wilderness to the far west, waterways and paths by which, in after years, settlers gradually found their way.

Not only did the Hudson's Bay Company absorb all rival fur companies in the great north and west ; it even extended its trade to British Columbia, and at one time leased the fur-trading privileges of Alaska, which country had been occupied in the seventeenth century by Russians. Thus the whole northern part of the continent was at one time in possession of a great private company whose aims were to become rich by the fur trade and to discourage the settlement of the country.

CHAPTER VI.

BEGINNING OF ENGLISH RULE.

After the Fall of Quebec.—When Canada came under British rule the French population along the St. Lawrence valley was about 65,000 persons, with 10,000 or 15,000 more scattered through Acadia and the west. A few chose to return to France rather than submit to English rule ; but the mass of the people, or habitants, soon found that the change was for their good. They sold the products of their farms to the English, who paid them in coin. Many had been compelled to fight in time of war without pay. They were kept poor by the greed and fraud of the officials, whose sole aim was to enrich themselves. These had kept for themselves the good money that found its way from France into Canada, and paid the people in worthless paper currency, which the French King afterwards refused to honour. Now the people had no enemies to fear ; they no longer had to serve in time of war ; they could employ themselves in tilling their farms and in the arts of peace. They were allowed to keep the lands on which they were settled, enjoy their own religion, and have all the rights of British subjects. The worst enemies of the French Canadians had been men like Bigot, who on their return to France were punished by the government for their crimes.

The Canadians were put under military rule (that is, rule by a general with a council of his officers to assist him), until it could be decided what was the best form of government to establish. This did not differ much from the rule to which they had always been ac-

customed, as they never had had any voice in governing the country or in making laws. Besides, their new English governors were men who, though firm in punishing crimes, made their rule as mild as possible ; and this, for a time at least, led to no strife and to but few complaints.

General Murray (afterwards governor-general of Canada) was appointed chief over the district of Quebec ; General Gage over Montreal ; and Colonel Burton over Three Rivers. By the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, English forms of law were introduced into Canada ; but the French, who neither understood the laws nor the language of England, did not look with favour on the change.

Indian Plot Against the English.—During the year 1763, Pontiac, a noted Indian chief who had formed a deep and well-laid scheme to drive the English from the west, nearly succeeded in the attempt.

The Indians had always liked the French. The free, easy manners of the latter, the ready way in which they adapted themselves to a wild, unrestrained life in the woods and to savage customs, and the abundance of gaudy presents they gave to gratify the Indian taste for finery, made them friends. The English, on the other hand, had never been the friends of the natives, except among the Iroquois. They were rougher in their manner, did not so well understand the Indian character, and did not always respect the rights of the red man in bartering for furs and lands.

Pontiac is believed to have taken part against Braddock, whose easy defeat by Indian methods of warfare, in 1755, may have given rise to his hope of finally destroying the English, or at least pushing them back from the west. He belonged to the Ottawa tribe, which was a part of the great Algonquin race ; and nearly all the Indians from the Ottawa to the lower Mississippi joined him, including one tribe of the Hurons (the Wyandots) and one tribe of the Iroquois (the Senecas). His skill and activity were wonderful. He relied upon taking all the frontier posts between the Niagara and the Ohio by stratagem and surprise, as they were separated from each other by wide distances, and were in general poorly garrisoned. Of the ten forts attacked in May, 1763, seven were taken, and the garrisons murdered or dispersed. The three

others—Niagara, Pitt, and Detroit—were stronger. The last named had timely notice of the attack. The Indians, led by Pontiac himself, besieged this place for five months without success. They were supplied by the French inhabitants in the neighbourhood with food, for which Pontiac gave notes in payment, written on birch bark. These he afterwards redeemed. The siege of Fort Pitt was even more remarkable, and lasted from May, 1763, until the place was relieved, in 1764. During the siege a British armed vessel was surrounded by a fleet of canoes and captured. The Indian rising was put down in 1764; and a few years later Pontiac was killed by another Indian in a drunken brawl.

After the Treaty of Paris.—From 1763 to 1774 Canada was in an unsettled condition, owing to the difficulty in choosing laws that would apply justly to English and French alike. The “new subjects,” as the French Canadians were called, had been promised the rights and privileges of British subjects; but, being Roman Catholics, they could not hold, under the English law at that time, any public office. The “old subjects,” as the English inhabitants were called, held all public offices; and this did not please the French, who formed much the larger part of the population. The great mass of the French Canadians, having little or no education, could not understand the English language and knew nothing about the English laws. General Murray, and Sir Guy Carleton, who succeeded him in 1766, made every attempt to have laws that would deal justly with the widely different aims and interests of both old and new subjects. But nobody was pleased; the French did not like the system of trial by jury; the English did not like the old way of holding land and settling disputes about property; and there were other changes that led to great confusion and some ill feeling.

Two good features of the new British rule in Canada are worthy of mention: A colony of soldiers and traders was quickly replaced by farmers, especially in those fertile districts west of Montreal, and in what are now known as the Eastern Townships; and the lands and hunting grounds of the Indians were preserved to them by royal edict. This just treatment of the Indians, with the kindness shown to them in the many years of French rule before, have borne good fruit in later years of Canadian history. The

people have lived in peace and friendship with the natives within our borders ; while the English-speaking race to the south of us, pursuing a less just and generous course, have had many cruel and expensive Indian wars.

The Quebec Act.—In 1774, the Quebec Act was passed, chiefly through the exertions of Sir Guy Carleton, the governor. It laid down the limits of the province of Quebec, which was to extend from the watershed of Hudson's Bay on the north to the Ohio river on the south, and from the Mississippi on the west to the frontiers of the New York and Pennsylvania settlements on the east. There were also included within the province of Quebec, Labrador, Anticosti and the Magdalen Islands. The act also gave to the French equal political and religious rights with the English ; the Roman Catholic clergy had the right to collect the usual tithes or dues from their own people ; the French law was to be used in all civil cases and the English law in all criminal cases ; the governor's council, to be appointed by the Crown, was to consist of not less than seventeen and not more than twenty-three members, of whom the majority was to be English ; and both the French and English language might be used in courts and political assemblies.

This act pleased the French, but not the English. The colonists to the south, especially those on the borders of the Ohio valley, were angry because of the privileges given to French and Roman Catholics. This, coupled with the demand of the British government that the colonies should be taxed to bear their share of the expenses of the late wars, soon led to their revolt.

Growth of the Atlantic Provinces.—We have seen that an assembly had been called at Halifax, in 1758, the year that saw the fall of Louisbourg. This assembly, composed of twenty-two members selected by the colonists, was the first parliament called in Canada. Governor Lawrence, who had summoned it against his own wishes, reported in his letters to England that the members did their work well.

The removal of the Acadians and the fall of Louisbourg had left the colony free from the dangers of war ; and the promise of grants of lands led to the coming of many settlers from the New England colonies to Nova Scotia (which then included New Brunswick).

Many of these occupied the lands which had recently been held by the Acadians, from Annapolis to the low lands around Chignecto. Others settled at various points between Halifax and Yarmouth. Some were given lands on the St. John River, the few French forts there having been destroyed and the inhabitants driven away after the removal of the Acadians from their lands in Nova Scotia. The chief settlement north of the Bay of Fundy was that of Maugerville, consisting of about 400 persons from Massachusetts. The country bordering on the St. John River, including by far the greater part of what is now the province of New Brunswick, was erected into a county, called Sunbury, in the year 1765, with the privilege of sending two members to the Assembly at Halifax.

During the ten years that followed the fall of Louisbourg, not less than 7,000 settlers had come from New England; and at the end of that time rather more than half the population of Nova Scotia was made up of New Englanders, who were attracted by grants of lands and the promise that full religious and political liberty should be given them. There were other settlements made at this time: a small band from Pennsylvania came to what is now Pictou county, increased a little later by immigrants from the Highlands of Scotland; and settlements were made on the St. John and Petitcodiac Rivers, on the Miramichi, and at Sackville and Bathurst. The first settlers at Pictou and on the Petitcodiac were of German descent.

At the time of the fall of Louisbourg the population of the Island of St. John was not less than 4,000 persons. Settlement on this island in early times had been slow. After Acadia had been given up to the English, a few who were not contented to live under British rule found their way to the island. The fall of Beauséjour and the exile of the Acadians brought great numbers to its shores, and several prosperous settlements were founded, especially at Port La Joye (Charlottetown), and at other places convenient of access and where the land was found to be fertile. It was chiefly from the Island of St. John that the garrison at Louisbourg received its supplies of food. After the fall of that great stronghold, the population of the island dwindled to a few hundred persons. The British on coming into possession portioned out the island into sixty-seven lots, granting the lands to those who had done some public service to the government, on condition that they would bring

out settlers. But only a few did so ; and for many years the island made little progress. It was divided from Nova Scotia, in 1769, and a separate government given to it at a time when not more than half a dozen owners of lots lived on the island, and when the whole population was not over 150 families.

Newfoundland.—The history of the Atlantic provinces of Canada would not be complete without some mention of Newfoundland ; for though this island does not yet (1901) form a part of the Dominion, it is hoped that it will be one of the Canadian provinces in a very few years. As it lies directly in the path of vessels sailing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, its shores were often visited in the early voyages made to this continent. The Cabots discovered Newfoundland, although the “Prima Vista” of their first voyage was no doubt the east part of Cape Breton, as has been already stated.

The natives of Newfoundland (the Skrellings of the Northmen ; the Red Indians of later times) were a branch of the Algonquin family who probably found their way to the island from Labrador or Cape Breton. Their habits and mode of life were much the same as those of the Indians of eastern Canada. Not one is to be found on the island at the present day. The cruel “pale-faces” drove them from the coast to the interior. Slaughter and famine completed the work of destruction ; and now the name, Red Indian Lake—even yet in the midst of a great wilderness—tells the story of the spot where they at last gathered to famish and to die.

Mention has been made of the fishermen who, year after year from its discovery, found their way in ever increasing numbers to Newfoundland ; and of the unfortunate attempt of Sir Humphrey Gilbert to found a colony. For many years the island was only a resort of fishermen who did not brave the rigours of its winter climate, but returned to their own homes at the close of each season. Gradually small settlements began to be formed on the east coast. In 1632, Lord Baltimore planted a colony of Irish in the peninsula of Avalon. Sir David Kirke was given a grant of the whole island by Charles I., in 1638. He ruled its affairs well, and settlement went on more rapidly. In 1635, the French obtained permission to dry fish on the shores of Newfoundland.

A few years later they founded a colony at Placentia, and gradually becoming bolder, they attempted the conquest of the whole island. At the close of the seventeenth century they had succeeded so well that all the English settlements had been destroyed except two, Carbonear and Bonavista. But the treaty of Utrecht again gave the English possession of the whole island. Although Newfoundland had been known to Europe for 200 years, the resident population was now only about 2,500. The same selfish reasons that led the fur-traders to discourage settlement in Canada, led the fish merchants who visited Newfoundland to look upon the shores and harbours as their own, to be used for the purpose of curing their fish; or, as one of them expressed it, "that Newfoundland should always be considered as a great English ship, moored near the Banks, during the fishing season, for the convenience of English fishermen." These merchants were men of wealth and power; and the government looked on without coming to the aid of the settlers, who were often driven from their homes and cruelly treated by these tyrants. After a time, by the efforts of some humane persons, the British Government came to realize the injury that was being done. The wrongs of the settlers began, in some measure, to be redressed; and the island was recognized as a British colony (1729). But it was nearly a hundred years after that before order was established and a resident governor appointed.

These wealthy fish merchants had spread the report that Newfoundland was a cold, barren country; and it has taken the outside world almost another hundred years to learn its mistake, and find out that the island has a good climate, much fertile soil, beautiful scenery, and an abundance of mineral wealth. Another cause that hindered settlement was the claim of the French that they had the *sole right* of fishing on a certain part of the coast called the "French Shore." Neither England nor Newfoundland has admitted this right; and it has been a cause of frequent disputes and ill feeling between the settlers and the French.

But though France had lost Canada by the fall of Quebec, she still had the hope of conquering Newfoundland. She knew the value of its fisheries, and looked upon it as the great training school for seamen of her navy. In 1762, on the 24th of June—a date worthy of note in the annals of Atlantic province discovery—a French

fleet arrived on the coast of Newfoundland, captured St. John's and other towns, and inflicted great injury on the settlers. But a British fleet and army soon came upon the scene; British authority was restored, and British ownership acknowledged in the following year. The population then was about 13,000 persons.

The Revolutionary War.—The causes and leading events of the struggle between England and her colonies to the south of Canada have been given in earlier pages of this book (151-156). It will be sufficient here to note the effect of this struggle on the Canadian provinces by the sea and on the St. Lawrence. Privateers, fitted out by the revolted colonies, entered the harbours and destroyed much property; but British war ships were sent out and cruised along the seaboard from Newfoundland to the St. Croix, ridding the coast of these pests. The people remained loyal to the Crown during these trying times. In 1776, a band of raiders from the border settlements of Maine, aided by some of the New Englanders who had settled at Maugerville and Chignecto, attacked Fort Cumberland, but were defeated and scattered.

It was in the valley of the St. Lawrence that the most determined attempt was made to draw the people from their allegiance to Great Britain. Soon after the revolt of the colonies, a force was sent against Montreal and another against Quebec (1775). The former was commanded by General Montgomery, an Irishman, who had fought under Wolfe at Quebec; the latter by General Benedict Arnold, a name infamous in American history. It was hoped the Canadians would join the cause of the revolted colonists, but they did not. The great mass of the French habitants had no desire for further strife; and they had looked upon the English people to the south of them as their worst enemies. As the "new subjects" of the king of Great Britain, they had been treated kindly, even generously. The wisdom and tact of Governor Carleton had won their friendship, as well as that of the clergy and seigneurs, who steadily supported him and the English cause. Among the enemies of England were many of the "old subjects," who claimed that their rights had been sacrificed by the Quebec Act. The British troops in Canada amounted to less than a thousand men at the time of the invasion;

and it required all the courage and skill of the governor to meet the danger.

Montgomery advanced against Montreal by Lake Champlain, where the way had been cleared for him a few months before by the capture of Crown Point and Ticonderoga. Taking the forts on the Richelieu river, he advanced unopposed to Montreal. Governor Carleton, seeing that his force was not sufficient to make a successful resistance, and not daring to trust to the loyalty of the inhabitants, retreated to Quebec. He and the few followers who attended him were in frequent danger of being captured by raiding bands of the enemy on their way down the St. Lawrence, but he succeeded in reaching the city safely. Meanwhile General Arnold had marched through the wilds of Maine, by the valleys of the Kennebec and Chaudiere (shō'-de-air') rivers, his troops suffering great hardships from the difficulties of the way and the scarcity of provisions. He arrived opposite Quebec early in November, shortly before Carleton reached the city ; but weakened by his march and with no present means of crossing the river, he awaited the arrival of Montgomery from Montreal. After the junction of the two armies on the north bank of the St. Lawrence, the fifth and last siege of Quebec began, early in December. As the besieging force was not provided with heavy artillery, little progress was made, and it was resolved to make an assault on the city in the early morning of December 31st. While a feint was made to attack the city by way of the Plains of Abraham, Montgomery and Arnold advanced from different directions—the former by a rough road along the St. Lawrence to the front of what is called the Lower Town ; the latter from the direction of the St. Charles along the low grounds to the rear of the city. It was arranged that the two forces should meet at the foot of the street that led to the citadel above. But Carleton was prepared for the attack. Montgomery's force, as it advanced through a blinding snow storm to the place of meeting, was suddenly met by a discharge of cannon and musketry. He himself and many of his soldiers were instantly killed ; the rest fled. Arnold met with little better success. In attempting to force his way into the city, he was wounded and his followers surrounded and forced to surrender. Nearly five hundred men were killed, wounded or taken prisoners in the attack. The British loss was less

than twenty. Arnold kept up the siege during the winter, if siege it might be called, for his army was still further weakened by sickness, desertion and suffering from the intense cold. The arrival of a British fleet before Quebec in the spring, with an army under General Burgoyne, obliged the enemy to leave the St. Lawrence and retreat beyond Lake Champlain. On this lake a British fleet under Carleton attacked and destroyed Arnold's fleet. No further attempt was made on Canada during the war, which came to an end in 1783. By the treaty of peace the independence of the thirteen colonies was recognized. Lake Champlain and the territory claimed by Quebec south of the Great Lakes, ceased to be under British control; but a complete boundary line between Canada and the United States, was not arranged until years afterwards. In 1778, General Haldimand became governor of Canada in place of Sir Guy Carleton who returned to England.

The United Empire Loyalists.—The people of the Thirteen Colonies were not all in favour of revolt against England. Very many, while seeing that there were grievances which the British government ought to correct, could not think of such an extreme step as a separation from the parent state. On account of their loyalty to the Crown, these were called United Empire Loyalists. By the revolutionary party, they were looked upon as traitors, and were often treated with great cruelty, driven from their homes and their property taken from them. Many of the Loyalists sought refuge in British America; and at the close of the war thousands flocked into the Atlantic provinces and the country on the upper St. Lawrence and Great Lakes. The British Government gave them grants of land, and over £3,000,000 to aid in their support during the first few years. The larger number, about 30,000 persons, came to Nova Scotia, which included New Brunswick. As many as 12,000 persons were at one time settled in the town of Shelburne, but the district being unsuitable they went elsewhere. Many of the Loyalists found their way to other portions of the province and to Western Canada. About 3,000 landed at the mouth of the St. John River, May 18th, 1783, followed by about 7,000 more during the summer. In addition to these nearly 2,000 settled in Charlotte county and a considerable number in Westmorland county. Some founded the city of St.

John, while others settled in the adjacent country and further up the river. Others went to various parts of Nova Scotia, and to Cape Breton and the Island of St. John. Those who settled in the west were principally from the State of New York, and numbered about 10,000 people. Like those in the Atlantic provinces, they endured a great deal of hardship and suffering in the early years of their settlement; but in the end their courage and patience triumphed over all obstacles. To-day the British Empire has no subjects more loyal, nor Canada any better citizens, than those who trace their descent from the United Empire Loyalists.

Grants of land in the Atlantic provinces and Western Canada were given by the British government to officers and soldiers who had fought in the Revolutionary War. The Iroquois also, who had long been the allies of the English, were given lands along the Grand and Thames Rivers, between Lake Erie and Lake Ontario, and settled there. The city of Brantford is named in honour of their noted chieftain, Joseph Brant.

Separate Provinces.—We have seen that in 1769, the Island of St. John became a province. In 1798 the name was changed to Prince Edward Island, in honour of the Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria. But the population grew slowly on account of the land being held by absent owners. Cape Breton became a separate province in the year 1784, but it was again united to Nova Scotia in 1820. In 1784 the part of Nova Scotia north of the Bay of Fundy was formed into the separate province of New Brunswick, and Colonel Thomas Carleton, brother of Sir Guy Carleton, became its first governor. St. John (called Parrtown in 1784) was the first capital, and is the oldest incorporated town in British America, having received its charter on the 18th of May, 1785. Here the first legislative assembly met in 1786. The seat of government was removed in 1788 to Fredericton, which occupies the site of the former village of St. Ann's. In 1791 the Province of Quebec was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, the Ottawa River being, for the most part, the boundary line. The Province of Upper Canada was composed of English settlers of Loyalist stock; the great majority of the population of Lower Canada were French Canadians.

Constitutional Act of 1791.—The Act of the British Parliament which separated Quebec into Upper and Lower Canada also provided for the government of the two provinces. Each province was to have a governor and an advisory or executive council, a legislative council and an assembly. The governor, the executive council and the legislative council were responsible to and appointed by the Crown. The members of the legislative council held office for life. The assembly was to be elected every four years by a majority of the votes of the people. The British Parliament held the right to impose all customs duties in the trade carried on between the provinces and other portions of the British dominions or any foreign country; but the provincial parliaments could collect these duties and apportion them for public uses. The latter could also impose taxes for public purposes, such as providing for education, public buildings, roads and bridges. The money arising from customs, from mining and timber dues, and from the sale of wild lands, was under the control of the governor and the executive council. The people, through their representatives in the assembly, had very little to say in the management of their affairs; and this soon led to an agitation to make the executive council *responsible* to the assembly. This right the people of England had already partly gained for themselves, but only after centuries of effort.

The Constitutional Act also set aside one-seventh of the Crown lands for the support of a Protestant clergy in both provinces. These lands were known as the "Clergy Reserves." The free exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was secured, and the right to collect tithes and dues from their own people, as under the Quebec Act, was continued to the Roman Catholic clergy of Lower Canada. The English criminal law was to be in force in both provinces. In Upper Canada all land was to be held by freehold tenure; but in Lower Canada the farmers continued to hold their lands as tenants of the seigneurs.

During the debate in the British Parliament, before the bill became a law, there was a good deal of opposition. It was held that the division of Canada into a British and a French province would tend to keep the two races apart and prevent the development of a true national life. It was also predicted that the attempt to govern

Canada by an executive not responsible to the people would lead to failure. The act was not popular with the English, or "old subjects," of Lower Canada, who said that they were placed at a disadvantage compared with their fellow subjects in Upper Canada. The act went into effect in 1792. Lower Canada was divided into fifty electoral districts, each of which sent one member to the assembly. In the first house there were only sixteen representatives of British origin, and the number was even less in later parliaments. All bills and other papers had to be printed both in English and French, and a member could speak in either language. The legislative council was composed of fifteen members, about equally divided between French and English. Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester), who had succeeded Haldimand in 1783, was appointed governor of Lower Canada, and also the governor-general of all the provinces of British North America. The first parliament met on the 17th December, at Quebec.

The legislative assembly of Upper Canada, composed of sixteen members, and a legislative council of seven members, met at Newark (now Niagara), on the 17th September, 1792. A few years after, York (Toronto) was chosen as the capital, as it was not thought prudent to have the seat of government on the United States frontier. The first lieutenant-governor was Colonel (afterwards Major-General) Simcoe, a tried soldier, and one who proved a capable and energetic ruler.

Influence of the Loyalists.—At the time of the passage of the Constitutional Act (1791), the total population of what is now known as Canada, did not much exceed 250,000 people, of whom at least 150,000 were of French descent. The latter lived chiefly along the St. Lawrence and its branches, with about 10,000 in the Atlantic provinces, and a few scattered throughout the far west. In the French districts there was a small British population, consisting mainly of officials, traders and others. The population of Upper Canada did not exceed 25,000, composed nearly altogether of loyalist stock. The Atlantic provinces contained between 70,000 and 80,000 people, of whom more than one-half were Loyalists and descendants of those who came from New England in 1759 and the following years.

Loyalist influence in New Brunswick was scarcely less supreme

than in Upper Canada. Of the twenty-six members who composed its first house of assembly, twenty-three were Loyalists. In Nova Scotia, under the administration of Lieutenant-Governor Parr and his successor Sir John Wentworth, the Loyalists were welcomed. During the few years succeeding 1785, they almost doubled the population of that province; and both provinces contained, in addition to those from New England, many refugees from the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and the Carolinas. To a less extent the Loyalists found homes in Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, and in the Eastern Townships of Lower Canada. Every district where they settled soon bore the impress of their resolute character. The forests echoed with the sturdy strokes of their axes; and settlements, villages and towns were carved out from the wilderness. They suffered as well as toiled,—for not only were luxuries almost entirely wanting in those days, but even the necessities of life were difficult to obtain, and starvation often stared the settlers in the face. But if they lacked worldly goods they did not lack in character and independence. Wherever they went their sturdy self-reliance stamped itself upon society and political institutions. They early began that struggle for representative government which they did not give up until they attained a certain measure of political freedom. And they did not gain their end by revolution—by sacrificing those principles which had led them in former years to give up everything but life and character; they gained it by loyal and steady persistence.

The governments which had been established in the Atlantic provinces did not differ materially from those which a British act of parliament had given in 1791 to Upper and Lower Canada. But in the Atlantic provinces, the assemblies were created by royal authority, not by act of parliament; and one council performed both executive and legislative functions until years afterwards. In all the provinces the councils were responsible only to the Crown and could defy the voice and opinions of the assemblies.

Improvements Begin.—We, who live in an age when travel by rail or by steamship is easy and rapid, can little imagine the toil and difficulty of going from place to place a century ago. The settlers usually built their log cabins or “shanties” on the borders of

streams and lakes, and depended on bark canoes or "dug-outs" (canoes dug out of large logs) to carry their produce to the nearest town and bring home their scanty supplies. Paths through the forest were marked by "blazed" trees; roads were few and rough; streams and swamps were crossed by bridges of logs laid side by side. Fish and game from the near-by streams and forests, and wild berries and other fruits, helped to furnish a supply of wholesome food, especially in times when crops failed or when the means of carrying supplies were costly and difficult. Some herbs were found, having useful properties in the cure of diseases; others, such as the Labrador Tea, were used instead of tea and coffee, which were very dear and hard to obtain. The maple tree, the emblem of Canada, furnished maple sugar; a dainty prized then, as it is now, by old and young.

As time wore on and the struggle for food and shelter became less intense, the people through the sparsely settled country met more frequently in social gatherings. A "barn-raising" or "house-raising" or "chopping frolic" for men, and a "quilting-party" for women and girls, drew together youths and maidens from all parts; and the afternoon of work was succeeded by an evening of dancing and other amusements. The visits of clergymen were looked forward to with great interest, to join some couple in wedlock, to baptize children, or to hold a religious service. Soon churches and rude school houses began to appear. The teachers, often old soldiers, taught a little knowledge of reading, writing and figures, at a small salary or for their board. Books were scarce, and there were few newspapers in the country. Well-worn copies of newspapers from England or the United States were passed from house to house, and read by those who could read, for the benefit of all.

Among the Loyalists from New England were many educated men, and they saw the importance of having schools and colleges. King's College was opened at Windsor, Nova Scotia, in 1790; ten years later (1800), a similar college was founded at Fredericton; and in 1820, Dalhousie College was founded in Halifax. In 1780, a public grammar school was founded in Halifax; and in 1805, one in St. John. In 1816, the Pictou Academy, Nova Scotia, was established. Grammar schools were established in nearly every

county in New Brunswick before 1820. Both in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, Church of England schools were founded at an early date, and as these were very exclusive, other denominations, in later years, established schools of their own. In 1807, grammar schools were established in Upper Canada, and a private school was started about the same time at Kingston by Archdeacon (afterwards Bishop) Strachan. The latter became the first president of King's College, Toronto (1827), afterwards Toronto University. Laval had become the great Roman Catholic University of Canada, and seminaries for the education of the Catholic youth had been established at Montreal and Quebec.

CHAPTER VII.

WAR WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The Growing Time.—In the twenty years that followed the passing of the Constitutional Act, there were few events that call for more than a passing mention. It was a time of growth. Every day the busy, active life of the new settler was devoted to adding fresh acres of cleared lands to supply his growing needs. The little world around him, cut out from the wilderness, was a very real world to him. Making a home for his little ones required strength, patience, courage, and all his time and thought. He knew little of what was going on in the outside world. In the country which he was helping to make, there were questions to settle which were every day growing weightier, and which would require his attention when the struggle for bread would become less a toil.

During these twenty years the population had doubled. The quarter of a million people in what we now call Canada had grown to half a million; and half of these were of British origin. The greatest increase had been in Upper Canada, where the population had grown from 20,000 to 80,000. The Atlantic provinces had steadily increased in population; and the people, engaged in farming, lumbering and ship-building, were every year growing in wealth. In Lower Canada there was jealousy and rivalry between the French and English; and in all the provinces there were signs of a coming struggle for more freedom in government, by which the people

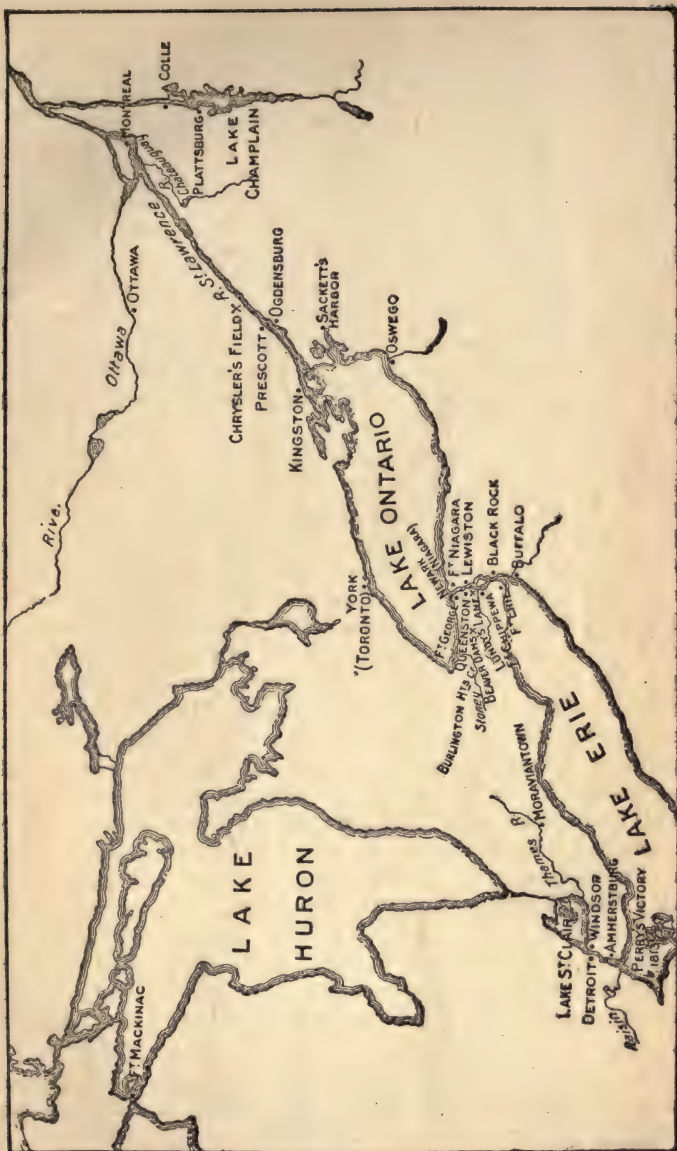
should have control of their own affairs. But there was an event approaching of greater importance, and one which for the time overshadowed all other disputes. This was the war between Great Britain and the United States, in which the provinces of Canada took a large share, and which in the end bound them closer together and closer to the great British Empire.

Causes of the War.—In Europe the French armies under Napoleon were masters of nearly every country except England, Russia and Spain. The great check upon Napoleon's power was England's navy; and he was putting forth every effort to ruin her commerce and weaken her strength as Mistress of the Seas. England had to use strong and sometimes harsh means to keep up her naval power and save her commerce; and this brought her into conflict with the United States. Napoleon had forbidden other nations to buy or sell English goods; and England forbade neutral nations to trade with France. This pressed very hard upon a nation like the United States, which was not at war with either England or France, but whose merchant ships were liable to be seized by either English or French war-ships. Another cause of ill-feeling between the two nations was the Right of Search. A British war-ship might stop any United States vessel on the sea and take from it any British subject or sailor who had deserted from her navy. The life of a sailor in the British navy was anything but easy at that time. "Press gangs" in all the ports forced men to enlist; and the discipline on board ships was severe, even cruel. Napoleon, while pretending friendship with the United States, was using all his arts to bring on a war between that nation and Great Britain. The people of the United States were then on the eve of a presidential election; and the Democratic party, always hostile to Great Britain, hoped to keep in power by favouring war. Unfortunately its efforts were successful; and war was declared on the 18th of June, 1812. On the day before, Great Britain had withdrawn the regulations which pressed so hard on United States trade. But it was too late; before the news had crossed the Atlantic the United States troops had invaded Canada.

Preparing for War.—The thrifty people of New England were opposed to war because it would injure their trade; and they gave but little aid. The Southern and Western States prepared for

active war. In the latter the enmity against Great Britain had long been bitter, because it was claimed that the British had occupied trading-posts in that country long after the treaty of peace in 1783, and that the Indians had been stirred up to make raids on the frontier settlers. The United States hoped to make an easy conquest of Canada. The border line was long, with only a few scattered forts to defend it. There were only 4,500 regular troops in the country, and Great Britain was too busy fighting Napoleon to spare many more. The people of the United States believed that when their armies appeared in Canada, they would receive active sympathy and help. But they were mistaken. The Loyalists had no desire to be re-united to a country from which they had been so cruelly driven. The French of Lower Canada were loyal, and stood side by side with the English Canadians to resist the invaders. The Indians threw themselves into the struggle against the "Long Knives," as they called the settlers who had driven them from their hunting-grounds in the Ohio valley. They fought on the side of the Canadians with bravery, but not with the fierceness and cruelty that had stained the old Iroquois wars. General Sir George Prevost was governor-general of Canada, having succeeded Sir James Craig; and the brave General Brock was lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada. The latter province took the leading part in the war, and nearly all the battles fought on Canadian soil were within its limits. Many of its loyalist inhabitants had seen active service, and its youth had been trained in military exercises. The assemblies in each province voted liberal sums to carry on the war. The fortresses of Halifax and Quebec were strengthened and defended by militia, and the regular soldiers were moved forward to Montreal. Three United States armies planned to attack Canada in 1812,—one to enter the country at Detroit, another across the Niagara River, and a third by way of Lake Champlain.

First Campaign, 1812.—General Hull, governor of Michigan, crossed the Detroit river on the 12th of July with 2,500 men. He was not joined, as he expected, by the Canadians. Meanwhile, Fort Mackinac (mäk'-in-aw'), belonging to the United States, had been captured by a force of Canadians and Indians (July 17th) without the loss of a man. This strong post, the key of the Upper



Lakes, stood on a rocky islet in the narrow strait joining Lakes Huron and Michigan. It had been the great place of meeting between the fur-traders and Indians for more than a century. "The hives of northern Indians," led by their great Chief, Tecumseh, joined the British. Hull, cut off from supplies, retreated to Detroit, whither he was followed by General Brock and Tecumseh. Although his force was double that of the Canadians and Indians, he surrendered the fort at Detroit. More than a thousand men, officers and regulars, were sent prisoners to Quebec; the rest, consisting of militia, were allowed to return to their homes. The territory of Michigan passed into the hands of the victors, who also obtained great quantities of stores and war material. This victory raised the spirits of the Canadians, and secured the firm support of the Indians.

The Niagara frontier, at Queenston, was the next place of attack. Early on the morning of the 13th October, a body of United States troops under General VanRensselaer crossed the river. Their landing was successfully opposed by a small body of Canadian troops; but meanwhile a larger body of the enemy had, by a secret path, during the morning, taken possession of Queenston Heights. In attempting to dislodge them the brave General Brock and one of his staff, Colonel Macdonell, a young officer of great promise, were killed. But the fall of the brave general was soon avenged. The troops, under the command of General Sheaffe, the son of a Loyalist, stormed the heights, hurled the enemy from their position, killing one hundred men and capturing a thousand prisoners. In November, another attempt to cross the river near Fort Erie was defeated. The army under General Dearborn, which attempted to invade Canada by way of Lake Champlain, met with no better success. Major de Salaberry, a brave officer, at the head of a force of French Canadian militia, met the enemy at Lacolle, on the Richelieu river, and forced them to retreat. The Canadians had been everywhere successful during the year. The death of their favorite general, Sir Isaac Brock, was a severe loss; but the example of his spirit and courage served to inspire the Canadians during the whole war.

The Second Year's Campaign.—In the spring of 1813 the war was resumed, although fighting had not entirely ceased during the

winter. Raiding bands crossed on the ice from New York and plundered the Canadian villages. In mid-winter, a regiment of British and New Brunswick soldiers marched from Fredericton to Quebec on snowshoes, performing the journey in thirteen days. Both sides were drilling troops and building vessels on the lakes. The United States troops planned to invade Canada at the same points as during the previous year. It will make the story clearer to deal with each section separately, as far as possible. General Harrison was in command of the western army of invaders, and from his success in recent Indian wars much was expected of him. Colonel Proctor was in command of the Canadians at Detroit. With the aid of Tecumseh and his Indian warriors he held the enemy in check all summer, having gained a signal victory over them at Frenchtown on the Raisin River. But the complete defeat of a British fleet on Lake Erie (September 13th) made it doubtful whether he could longer hold Detroit, and he retreated, followed closely by Harrison with a force three times as great as his own.

By the advice of Tecumseh, Proctor made a stand in the forest near where Moraviantown now stands (October 5th). But the Canadians were defeated; Proctor fled, and the gallant Tecumseh, with more than a hundred of his warriors, lay dead on the field. Harrison returned to Detroit. His troops had regained possession of the territory of Michigan, and were now masters of the west.

But around Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence the year ended gloriously for the Canadians. General Sheaffe had succeeded General Brock as lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada and commander of the forces. On Lake Ontario, as on Lake Erie, the United States had, during the winter and early spring, been very active in building and manning their ships. In April, a fleet under Admiral Chauncey, with a large force of men under General Dearborn, sailed out of Sackett's Harbor, New York State, and crossing Lake Ontario, captured and plundered York (Toronto). A little later, they laid siege to Fort George, near the mouth of the Niagara River. In the meantime a British fleet crossed Lake Ontario from Kingston to attack and destroy Sackett's Harbor, but failed in its object. General Sir George Prevost, who was in command of this force, and General Sheaffe, who had allowed York to be taken without striking a blow, were blamed for their conduct.

But this ended the chapter of failures. General Vincent, who was in command at Fort George, finding that he could not keep his position, blew up the works and retreated to Burlington Heights, near the west end of Lake Ontario. He was followed by a large force of the enemy, who pitched their camp on the 5th of June at Stoney Creek. Here they were attacked during the night by a small force from Vincent's army, under the command of Colonel Harvey, afterwards Sir John Harvey, governor of New Brunswick. The enemy were thrown into confusion and beat a hasty retreat, after their two generals and over a hundred men had been taken prisoners. To make up for the disgrace of such a defeat, a night attack was planned by a strong detachment of United States forces against Beaver Dams, a post some miles west of Queenston, held by Lieutenant Fitzgibbon. But he was informed of the intended attack by Laura Secord, a Canadian heroine, who walked twenty miles through the forest to give him warning. By a well-laid plan he succeeded in capturing the entire force of over 500 men sent against him. The season closed by the enemy withdrawing from the Niagara frontier; but not before they had laid waste the country and destroyed much property. On the night of the 10th December, the village of Newark (Niagara) was burned and the inhabitants turned out of their homes in the bitter cold of a winter night. In revenge for this, the British crossed Niagara River, took Fort Niagara, with several hundred prisoners, and burned all the towns and villages as far as Buffalo. Thus the ravages of war caused many innocent people to suffer.

The army under General Hampton, on Lake Champlain, was waiting until the armies in Upper Canada should complete their work. Then the united forces were to make an attack on Montreal. Colonel de Salaberry checked Hampton's advance towards Montreal by a repulse in the woods near the Chateauguay (shah'-tō-gay') River. De Salaberry posted his men so cleverly that Hampton thought he had a large force, and withdrew to Lake Champlain. This was in the last days of October. Early in November a force under General Wilkinson sailed from Sackett's Harbor, down the St. Lawrence; and, landing near Prescott, made their way along the bank of the river. They were attacked at Chrystler's Farm, near where Cornwall now stands, and after a fierce battle were defeated

by a much smaller British force. No further attempt was made against Montreal that year.

Events of 1814.—The war ended in 1814. In March, General Wilkinson again pushed forward towards Montreal ; but at Lacolle Mill, near the Richelieu, he met with such a strong resistance from the little garrison of 500 men that he gave up the attempt and retreated to Lake Champlain. Oswego, on Lake Ontario, was captured by the British commander, Sir Gordon Drummond, and Sir James Yeo, the naval commander on the lakes. In July, the Niagara River was again crossed by 4,000 United States troops under General Brown, who took Fort Erie. General Riall, with 2,000 British and Canadians, opposed this large force at Chippewa, further down the river, but after an obstinate battle he was forced to retreat towards Fort George. He took up a position at Lundy's Lane, near Niagara Falls, where he was joined by General Drummond with 800 men. The enemy, after burning the dwellings of the farmers, advanced to Lundy's Lane, where was fought the bloodiest and most stubbornly contested battle of the war (July 25th). It raged with varying success from six o'clock in the afternoon until midnight, when the United States troops retired with a loss of 1,000 killed and wounded. The loss of the British and Canadians was nearly as great ; but they held their position with a smaller force, and theirs was the greater glory. Drummond pursued the enemy to Fort Erie, which he besieged, but failed to capture. Towards the close of the season the United States forces blew up the fort and re-crossed the river. Canada was now free from the invader.

The war in Europe had ceased for a time. Napoleon had been banished to Elba. Great Britain was able to send out troops to assist the gallant Canadians in their struggle. A fine army was led by Sir George Prevost (prev-vō') against Plattsburg on Lake Champlain ; but the British fleet on the lake was defeated, and Prevost, to his great shame, retired without attacking the town. In August, a British fleet entered Chesapeake Bay, took Washington, the capital of the United States, and burned the public buildings. Mobile was also captured ; but the British were defeated at New Orleans by General Jackson, a fortnight after the Treaty of Ghent (pr. gent, the *g* hard), Dec. 14th, 1814. This ended the war. Many of the

questions in dispute between Great Britain and the United States were left unsettled, and gave rise to disputes in after years.

The Atlantic provinces had been free from invasion and the horrors of war, owing to the presence of a large British fleet stationed at Halifax. In July and August, the State of Maine, from the St. Croix to the Penobscot, was invaded and occupied by an army under Sir John Sherbrooke, governor of Nova Scotia. During the first year of the war, the United States navy gained many successes, but in the following years Britain's supremacy of the seas was restored. In the great naval duel, in 1813, off Boston Harbour, between the British ship "Shannon" and the United States ship "Chesapeake," the latter was captured and taken into Halifax Harbour. In 1814, the coast of the United States was blockaded by British war-ships. Both nations were glad to make peace; and it is hoped that these people, of a common origin, speaking the same language and having the same interests, may never again go to war with each other.

CHAPTER VIII.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

After the War.—The war caused a great deal of suffering among the people of Upper Canada. Many of those who had gone out to fight in defence of their country slept in soldiers' graves; many came back maimed or disabled for life; and those who returned safe and sound found it not an easy task to resume their former steady habits of work. Women and children had been obliged to work in the fields during the war, to sow the seeds and gather the harvests, and they did not know what moment some roving bands of the enemy might invade their homes, perhaps to plunder and destroy, or carry off their hard-earned and scanty stores of food. Small pensions were granted to those who had been wounded in the war and to the widows and orphans of those killed in battle. There was still alive in the land the same brave spirit that had led men to fight in defence of their homes and their wives and children to work and wait patiently for the end. The struggle for subsistence was to begin over again with many—in rebuilding their homes and repairing the ravages of war. But they took up their

wanted tasks as true heroes have ever done ; they kept alive the memory of those whose blood had been shed in a just cause ; and in after years the marble shaft on many a battle field was to tell the story of the fallen brave.

A Quarter Century of Material Progress.—During the twenty-five years between 1815 and 1840 the older or eastern portion of what is now Canada grew rapidly in population, trade and manufactures. There was only one settlement in the Far West. Into this “great lone land,” by way of Hudson’s Bay, had come, in 1812, a company of Scottish and Irish settlers, brought out by Lord Selkirk, of the Hudson’s Bay Company. They founded a colony at Assiniboia, on the Red River. They were soon forced to leave the country partly from the hardships they endured, but more from the jealousy and ill-will of the Northwest Fur Company. In 1816, Governor Semple, who was at the head of the colony, and twenty of his men, lost their lives in an affray with the employees of the company. Over the affairs of this unfortunate colony the two rival fur companies became involved in a quarrel which led in 1821 to the union of the two into a new company, still known as the Hudson’s Bay Company, and having a charter from the British government for twenty-five years.

In the twenty-five years following the close of the war, the population of Upper Canada and the Atlantic provinces was more than doubled, and there was a large increase in Lower Canada. Immigrants poured into the country from England, Scotland and Ireland, and the best lands were soon taken up and settled. The log cabins of the early settlers gave place to comfortable dwelling-houses, often of brick or stone. In 1832, the Asiatic cholera broke out in Quebec, and in the following years spread through the upper provinces. This checked immigration for a time. Trade increased rapidly, especially along the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Canals were built in places where the rapids in the rivers hindered navigation. Montreal, Quebec and Toronto, St. John and Halifax grew into flourishing cities, and villages and towns sprang up all over the country. As early as 1809, a steamboat had made trips on the St. Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal ; and soon steamers were plying in every direction on the seas and inland waters of Canada. Agriculture made

rapid strides, and Canadian wheat and other farm products found their way over the ocean. In the greater part of Lower Canada and the Atlantic provinces, where the soil and climate were not so favourable to the growth of large crops as in Upper Canada, lumbering, ship-building, the fisheries, and mining, became large industries, in many cases to the neglect of farming. In these provinces there was often great loss of property from forest fires. By the Great Fire of Miramichi in the summer of 1825, thousands of square miles of valuable forest lands were made a blackened desert, many thriving villages and settlements burned, and nearly two hundred people lost their lives. Although no such terrible calamity has since visited Canada, nearly every season has witnessed great loss to the country from careless lumbering and from the brush fires of settlers.

After the war the paper-money or army bills were called in and redeemed in coin. These were "promises to pay" made by the government when it needed money to carry on the war; and it speaks well for the government and the country that they were redeemed at their full face value, although it was a time of distress and great scarcity of money. As trade grew and flourished, banks began to be established in the chief cities, and money circulated more freely. Some advances were made in education; but the masses of the people were still too much engaged in the struggle for bread to give much attention to founding schools. It was estimated in 1837 that not one-fifteenth of the population of the provinces of Canada attended school. "The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel," in carrying on missionary work for the Church of England had received large grants of money from the English parliament, which it used in establishing schools and giving religious instruction throughout Canada. It was, however, not left only to the provincial government and the Church of England to establish and maintain colleges and schools. Generous men of wealth and different denominations of Christians gave of their means to education. McGill College, founded by a generous merchant of Montreal, was opened in 1829; Upper Canada College in 1837. The Baptists founded Acadia College at Wolfville in 1838; and the Methodists, by means of the generous benefactions of Mr. Charles F. Allison, began, in the year 1841, the Mt. Allison Institutions at

Sackville. The laws against Roman Catholics were repealed in the different provinces, and they were given the same right as Protestants to vote and hold offices under government.

Struggle for Responsible Government.—We have seen that in every Canadian province the same form of government had been established—a governor and council appointed by the Crown, and a legislative assembly elected by the people. The governor and council so managed affairs that the people had very little share in governing themselves. As time went on and the people grew in numbers and influence, the demand grew stronger for a representative government, that is, a system in which those elected by the people as their representatives should have control over the affairs of the country. It can readily be seen that in a new country, where the population is small, there may not be, for a time, a sufficient number of able men to carry on the government. It was for this reason that the home government wished to keep the control of affairs, especially in the early history of the colonies, in its own hands, or in the hands of those directly appointed by it. But when men become accustomed to rule they are not easily led to give up their power to others, especially to those whom they have been taught to look upon as their inferiors in birth and social position, as well as in the ability to rule. In all the provinces, the chief offices in the government were held by the members of a few families, who thought that they alone had a right to these offices. This was termed the “Family Compact,” because those in it worked for the interests of one another, as do members of the same family. Many in the Compact were Loyalists; others were from England, and, by the influence of friends, had managed to get themselves appointed to office. Those who came into the country later found themselves shut out of office and positions of influence by the members of the Family Compact. They, with others who had been in the country for a longer time, saw the need of change; and thus there grew up the Liberals or Reformers; while those who were opposed to change were called Conservatives or Tories.

Among the grievances complained of was the management of the Crown lands. These were the lands that had not been portioned out for settlement. The British government claimed the right

to hold and dispose of all lands not settled. It also claimed the right to levy the duties on all goods brought into Canada, lest the provinces might put on too high duties. The revenues from both these sources—that is from the sale of timber and wild lands, and from duties on imports—were controlled by the governor and his council, and they could use the money as they pleased, without consulting the wishes of the majority in the assembly.

A grievance that existed in Upper Canada was that of the “Clergy Reserves.” By the act of 1791, one-seventh of the land in that province had been set apart for the support of a Protestant clergy and for the use of schools. The Church of England clergy held that they alone were entitled to the grants of these lands, but other denominations claimed their share, and the dispute caused much ill-feeling.

The Rebellion of 1837-38.—The struggle for responsible government in Upper and Lower Canada was carried on with great bitterness, until some went so far as to try to overthrow the government with the aim of establishing a republic like that of the United States. A rebellion broke out in each province; but fortunately was put down with but little bloodshed. The leader of the rebellion in Upper Canada was William Lyon Mackenzie, a Scotsman of a rash and excitable temper. In Lower Canada, the leaders were Louis Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson. Papineau was a brilliant man who had great influence over the French. Like Mackenzie, he was impulsive, and wanted to have abuses reformed at once. Several outbreaks took place in the neighbourhood of Montreal in the fall of 1837. These were easily put down by Sir John Colborne, commander of the British forces in Canada. In the following May (1838), Lord Durham arrived at Quebec, as governor-general and commissioner, to examine into the cause of the rebellion. He proclaimed a pardon to the rebels on the 28th of June, the coronation day of Queen Victoria. He banished Nelson to Bermuda, and forbade Papineau, who was then in the United States, to return to the province under pain of death. Lord Durham, in an able and fair report to the British Government, advised the union of all the provinces under one parliament; or, if that were not possible, the union of Upper and Lower Canada under responsible government. After he left Quebec, the rebellion again

broke out, but it was quelled after some destruction of life and property. Twelve of the leaders were tried and executed at Montreal.

In Upper Canada, Sir John Colborne had been succeeded as lieutenant-governor in 1836 by Sir Francis Bond Head, a man very unfit for the position in a trying time. He allowed himself to be led by members of the Family Compact. His weakness, and the rashness of Mackenzie, led to the rebellion. The followers of Mackenzie planned to attack York (Dec. 7th, 1837), while the troops were absent putting down the rebellion in Lower Canada. Had the attempt to take York been strong and well planned, the result might have been serious; but it failed through the weakness and cowardice of the leaders. The rebels were easily defeated, and Mackenzie escaped to Buffalo. Here he gathered a band of reckless men from across the border, seized Navy Island, two miles above Niagara Falls, fortified it, and prepared to invade Canada. Colonel McNab, the commander of the troops on the Canadian side, sent a party of men under cover of night to destroy the little steamer "Caroline," which was used to carry supplies to the rebels from their friends in Buffalo. The steamer was set on fire, taken out into mid-stream, and allowed to drift over the falls. Navy Island was then abandoned. The British Government sent an apology to the United States for the destruction of property; but Colonel McNab was made a knight and presented with a sword. The United States Government sent a body of troops to the frontier to prevent men and supplies from being sent over to Canada; but sympathy with the rebels was very active, and numbers succeeded in crossing the border at various points on the St. Lawrence and by way of Detroit. Near Prescott, a decisive engagement took place in which thirty rebels were killed, and one hundred and thirty taken prisoners. This ended the rebellion in Upper Canada. Mackenzie was in exile; many of the rebels were tried and executed; others were banished to the penal settlements of New South Wales.

Mackenzie and Papineau were afterwards pardoned. Both men returned to Canada after some years and again entered political life, but not as leaders.

Union of Upper and Lower Canada.—The result of the long agitation which ended in rebellion was the union of Upper and

Lower Canada, in 1840, under one parliament. This prepared the way, a quarter of a century afterwards, for the larger plan proposed by Lord Durham—union of all the provinces and territories of British North America. Though the French of Lower Canada and the Family Compact of Upper Canada opposed the union, fearing loss of influence; yet by the tact and skill of the governor, Charles Poulett Thompson, afterwards Lord Sydenham, all difficulties were smoothed. The bill for union passed the British Parliament in 1840, and came into effect in February, 1841. There was to be a legislative council of not less than twenty members, appointed by the Crown for life; a legislative assembly of forty-two members from each province; and an executive council of eight members, responsible to the assembly which was now given control of the revenues.

Responsible Government in the Atlantic Provinces.—Responsible government in the Atlantic provinces was gained more quietly. The same abuses in the government of the provinces existed as in Upper and Lower Canada. The members of the Family Compact held all the offices, and steadily used their influence against reform. The agitation for responsible government began some years later than in the provinces on the St. Lawrence; and it was not until 1848 that reform was secured. In 1832, the functions of the legislative council of New Brunswick were divided, and the executive and legislative councils were henceforth separated as provided for Upper and Lower Canada by the Act of 1791. The same change was made in the councils of Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island a few years later. But the change did not lessen the evils complained of; the Family Compact flourished as before.

The most brilliant leader of reform in New Brunswick was a young lawyer, Lemuel Allen Wilmot, afterwards a judge and lieutenant-governor of the province. He was an eloquent speaker, a keen and ready debater, and gifted with many varied talents. Associated with him was Charles Fisher, afterwards Judge Fisher, an able lawyer and an energetic and consistent public man. The leader in Nova Scotia was Joseph Howe, who threw himself into the contest with the greatest zeal and energy. He was an able writer and speaker, and a fearless champion of the people's rights.

Wilmot, Fisher and Howe were of Loyalist descent, and were members of the assembly. During this period of agitation Sir John Harvey, the hero of Stoney Creek, was successively governor of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. He tried to calm the strife between opposing parties; and, as he was in favour of reform, he gained the ill-will of the Tories. In Prince Edward Island the struggle was carried on steadily, and with the same successful result as in the other provinces.

In Newfoundland the people only gained the right to elect an Assembly in 1832, and therefore the struggle with them for a freer form of government began later. The hard times at the close of the war of 1812-14 were felt even more keenly in Newfoundland than in the other provinces. During the war the people had obtained good prices for their fish, but at the close the wages of the fishermen and the prices of fish became very low, and there was much suffering in consequence.

CHAPTER IX.

BEFORE CONFEDERATION.

Progress.—In the quarter of a century or more that passed between 1840 and the time of the confederation of the provinces of Canada, the progress of the country was greater than during any previous period of the same length. The people began now to enjoy a measure of that freedom of government which is so necessary to all real progress, especially of the British races. It was an age of railways and steamboats; and the building and working of these opened up new industries, increased travel and trade to a vast extent, gave employment to many men, and brought into the country a steady stream of people engaged in various pursuits. The population, a little over 1,500,000 in 1841, increased in a quarter of a century to nearly 3,500,000. Colonies sprang up in the great west. Upper Canada, with its superior soil and climate, became a great agricultural province. In Lower Canada and the Atlantic provinces ship-building and lumbering became great industries; and the mines of British Columbia, Nova

Scotia and other sections of the country became new sources of wealth. Villages and towns grew into cities, the centres of an industrious and self-reliant population.

To provide for the better defence of the country companies of volunteers were formed in the various provinces. In a few years these were judged sufficient for the needs of the country ; and the British regular troops were withdrawn (1870), except a small force at Halifax.

A decimal system of coinage and currency was first adopted in 1858, in which dollars and cents came into use instead of pounds, shillings and pence. The metric system of weights and measures is in use in nearly all foreign countries. Legalized in Great Britain in 1864, and in Canada in 1873, it has not yet become common except in scientific works and at a few ports.

Better Means of Communication.—The Victorian Age, as the period from the accession of Queen Victoria, in 1837, has been called, saw at its beginning new and rapid means of communication between nations, by steamship, railway, and telegraph. Before the time of railways, people travelled long distances and carried goods in vessels ; and therefore settlers did not like to be far from the sea or from navigable rivers. The people of Canada had already spent much money in building canals where falls and rapids along the St. Lawrence prevented the free passage of vessels from the Lower St. Lawrence to the Great Lakes. Great numbers of small sailing vessels were built every year for the carrying trade on lakes and rivers, as well as for the coasting trade in the Atlantic provinces. A great number of ocean-sailing ships were built at Quebec, and at St. John, Yarmouth, Halifax and other places in the Atlantic provinces. This industry became so great in Nova Scotia that the province had more vessels afloat according to population than many of the older maritime countries of the world. Steamship communication was established between the ports of British America and England and other countries. In 1840, Samuel Cunard, a Nova Scotian, and founder of the famous Cunard line of steamers, began to carry passengers and mails regularly between England and these provinces ; and in 1854, the Allan line of steamships was running between Montreal and Liverpool.

Communication by land routes was of later growth. The roads for a long time were poorly made and allowed to remain in bad condition, except the "post" roads, as they were called, between the principal cities and towns. These were well kept; and stage coaches carrying mails and passengers ran regularly and proved a great convenience to those living inland. Among the most important of these roads in the east were those from Halifax to Annapolis Royal, Halifax to St. John, and St. John to Quebec. In the best days of such travelling, a journey of from 80 to 100 miles in a day could easily be made; and there are many who delight to recall the spirited scene of the old-fashioned stage-coach, drawn by four horses which were changed at "stages" of every fifteen miles. The driver, "news from all nations lumbering at his back," kept his four-in-hand well under control, and was the admiration and delight of every urchin along the road. But travel by the old-fashioned stage-coach passed away, and the age of rapid transit began. Railways were built, at first very slowly, so that by 1850 there were not more than fifty miles of railroad in operation in Canada. During the next few years there was a great change. The Grand Trunk and Great Western lines were built in the west; a line from St. John to Shediac, one from Halifax to Windsor and Truro, and numerous shorter lines built in the Atlantic provinces and in Upper Canada. The Intercolonial Railway was planned. Indeed, so great was the progress in making railroads that at the time of Confederation Canada had over 3,000 miles in operation, including the great Victoria railway bridge across the St. Lawrence, at Montreal. Although many of these roads did not at first pay, they opened up new portions of country for settlement, made land more valuable, and it became much easier for people to travel and send produce and goods from place to place. Letters and newspapers were carried with less cost and with much greater quickness and regularity than in former years. In 1851, the management of postal affairs, which had been under the control of the home government, was handed over to the different provincial governments, and postage stamps came into use. This was much more convenient than paying directly in money whenever a letter was posted. More rapid communication by means of the telegraph was introduced in 1847. An ocean telegraph

cable was laid from Ireland to Newfoundland in 1858 ; but this proving unworkable a new one was laid in 1866.

Boundaries Settled. — The boundary lines between British America and the United States had not been definitely settled in the east and extreme west. Several times Great Britain and the United States were on the verge of war on account of boundary disputes ; but each time wiser counsels prevailed and peace was preserved. The British Government sent out Lord Ashburton with full powers to arrange matters in dispute ; and the United States appointed for the purpose Daniel Webster, a famous lawyer and statesman. The St. Croix River had been fixed as the boundary line between New Brunswick and Maine, but the particular branch of that river which the boundary should follow was in dispute. This was decided by the Ashburton Treaty of 1842 ; and of the 12,000 square miles of disputed territory between New Brunswick and Maine, the United States got 7,000 and Great Britain 5,000 square miles. From the head waters of the St. Croix, the boundary line was traced westward to the 49th parallel of latitude beyond the Lake of the Woods. This parallel had been fixed by the treaty of 1783 as the boundary line as far as the Rocky Mountains, but beyond that to the Pacific Ocean, the line was unsettled.

The United States claimed the whole Pacific coast as far north as the southern boundary of Alaska, then in possession of Russia. This would have shut out Great Britain completely from the Pacific Ocean ; but in 1846, when war again threatened, the Treaty of Oregon fixed upon the 49th parallel from the Rocky Mountains westward, and through the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the ocean. This gave all Vancouver Island to the British. The small island of San Juan was still claimed by both nations ; but, the matter being left to the decision of the Emperor of Germany, he awarded it in 1871 to the United States. Thus nearly a century passed before the determination of the boundary line between Canada and the United States was completed. Recently a fresh dispute has arisen concerning the boundary between Canada and Alaska. This is not yet settled (1901).

The Great West. — We have seen that Selkirk's Settlement, or the Red River Settlement, for many years the only colony in the

Great West, suffered hardships at the hands of the fur traders of the Northwest Company. After it came under the protection of the new Hudson's Bay Company, its troubles were not ended. Sudden floods in spring, plagues of grasshoppers in summer, and Indian wars on its borders at any season, made the lot of the settlers a hard one. Many found their way eastward to the frontier settlements of Upper Canada. Those who remained, after various changes and hardships, established themselves near where the city of Winnipeg now stands. Here the Hudson's Bay Company had built the trading post, Fort Garry, at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine rivers. Around this post flocked English and French half-breeds, discharged soldiers of the British army, missionaries, retired employees of the Hudson's Bay Company and others—a motley crowd. Many married Indian wives. They spread themselves along the two rivers from Fort Garry as a centre; and thus was formed the beginning of the province of Manitoba (man-i-tō'-ba).

In the early years of the nineteenth century a few hardy and bold hunters—the *coureurs de bois* of earlier times—found their way over the vast prairies to the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains. It was not until 1859 that an attempt was made to reach the Pacific from Upper Canada by an overland journey. In that year two parties started with ox-teams and guides, and, after suffering the greatest hardships, only the strongest succeeded in reaching the Western Ocean by a toilsome and dangerous march of nearly six months. Few dreamed then that in less than a quarter of a century the overland journey would be made in less than six days! The discovery of gold along the rivers of the Pacific slope, in 1857, had led these men to attempt the journey across the continent. Their sufferings did not prevent others from trying; and soon hundreds were to be seen along the trails, with ox-teams and on foot, slowly trudging to the gold fields of the west. A few years before this (1849), Vancouver Island had been given by the British government to the Hudson's Bay Company, on condition that they would plant a colony there. As early as 1842, this company had built a fort where now the city of Victoria stands, so that they might be well within British limits in case they had to remove their posts from the United States territory south of them. The Treaty of Oregon (1846) showed the wisdom of their course. The Hudson's Bay

Company, however, were poor colonizers except in their own way. After three years, Vancouver Island had only thirty settlers. The governor who had been sent out to rule the colony returned to England. The company controlled affairs, and the first legislative assembly, elected in 1856, was under its influence. But the rush for gold and the discovery of coal brought about a great change. Men hurried thither by ship and by the overland route from all parts of the continent and from Europe—all eager for gold. Villages of tents and huts moved to and fro, wherever the search for the precious metal was carried on. Thousands of people came into the country, many to return disappointed. The greater portion, charmed with the climate and the fertility of the soil, remained—some to continue the search for gold in the river beds farther inland, others to settle down as farmers and traders. Soon Victoria, New Westminster, Yale, Cariboo, Nanaimo became flourishing towns. Two separate colonies were formed, with Sir James Douglas as joint governor—Vancouver Island, with Victoria as its capital; and British Columbia, with New Westminster as capital. The ruling authority of the Hudson's Bay Company came to an end. In 1866, the two colonies were united, with Frederick Seymour as governor. In 1867, Victoria was made the capital of the united colonies. To govern the rough men who had swarmed into the country had been a matter of some difficulty; but Chief Justice Matthew Begbie, who had been sent out by the British government, in 1858, soon brought about by his wisdom and firmness a reign of law and order.

Under One Government.—The government of the united provinces of Upper and Lower Canada first met at Kingston; afterwards in Montreal; then four years in turn, at Toronto and Quebec. This plan of changing about did not satisfy anyone; and finally Ottawa was chosen by the Queen as the capital (1858), and fine parliament buildings were erected there a few years later, the corner-stone of which was laid by the Prince of Wales (Edward VII), in 1860. In 1841, for the first time in the history of Canada, the governor chose his advisers, or executive council, from the members of the assembly elected by the people. One of the first acts of the new parliament was to pass the Municipal Law, which gave every city, town and county the right to manage its own local affairs, and to raise taxes for local purposes. Thus was another great

advance made in popular government. Dr. Egerton Ryerson was entrusted with the task of framing a system of free schools for Upper Canada ; and for thirty years, as superintendent of education, he devoted himself to arranging and perfecting the system. In 1847, Lord Elgin became governor of Canada, and showed great wisdom and tact in managing affairs. The governor before him, Sir Charles Metcalfe, had attempted to follow in the footsteps of former governors in making appointments without the advice of his ministers, or executive council. This showed the people that responsible government was not so firmly established but that some arbitrary governor could still make trouble by attempting to have his own way.

Under Lord Elgin's wise rule the country prospered greatly. The British parliament gave to Canada the power of imposing duties on goods coming into the country. In 1854, a reciprocity treaty was arranged between the British North American Provinces and the United States by which certain natural products of either country could be exchanged without payment of duties. The use of canals in Canada and the right to fish in certain coast waters was given to the United States. In return Canada had the right to use the waters of Lake Michigan as a highway for her vessels.

The question of how to dispose of the clergy reserves was settled by selling the lands and dividing the proceeds among the different municipalities for educational or other public purposes ; the rights of the clergy being protected. The question of land-holding in Lower Canada was settled by buying the lands from the seigneurs, each tenant paying a certain sum, the balance being paid out of a fund granted for that purpose by the government. A great grievance was thus removed, and the French-Canadian farmers became land-owners, or freeholders, like the English farmers of Upper Canada.

In 1849, an act was passed to pay those in Lower Canada, as the Loyalists in Upper Canada had been paid, for losses of property suffered in the Rebellion of 1837-38. The country was greatly excited over this question ; and there was strong opposition to it among the Conservatives. "No Pay to Rebels !" was the cry. When the law was passed riots took place in Toronto and Montreal. In the latter city, where parliament was sitting, the mob insulted the governor-general, Lord Elgin, by pelting him with stones and

rotten eggs, drove the members of parliament from their places, and set fire to the assembly building, destroying the valuable library containing books and public records. The houses of well-known Reformers were damaged in several of the principal cities, but peace and good feeling were soon restored.

Some changes were made in the Union Act of 1840 : The French language, which had been restricted, was again put on the same footing as English and made an official language in parliament ; the legislative council was made elective ; and a demand was made for "representation by population," Upper Canada claiming the right, through the Reform party, to have more members in the assembly because of her greater wealth and population. It was at this time (about 1864), when men saw the necessity of a change, that the plan of Confederation of the Provinces of British North America, proposed by Lord Durham, began to be thought of seriously. Among the chief men in the Canadian parliament of those times were John A. Macdonald, Geo. E. Cartier, Sir Allan McNab, on the Conservative side ; and George Brown, A. A. Dorion, Francis Hincks, William McDougall, of the Reform party. In 1854, Lord Elgin was succeeded as governor by Sir Edmund Head.

The Atlantic Provinces.—In the quarter of a century before Confederation, the Atlantic provinces grew rapidly in population and wealth. The failure of the potato crop in Ireland, and the famine there in 1847, brought large numbers of the people to British America. Between the years 1840 and 1850, over 350,000 immigrants arrived at Quebec ; 37,000 came to New Brunswick, and the other Atlantic provinces had a large increase of population. In 1848, the boon of responsible government was gained in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former province the Reform party was led, as we have seen, by Lemuel Allen Wilmot, and there were associated with him Charles Fisher, William Ritchie and S. L. Tilley, names well known in the history of New Brunswick. In 1841, Sir William Colebrooke was appointed governor. He had such a small regard for the aims of the Reformers, that he appointed his own son-in-law to the important office of provincial secretary. But this was too much even for the enemies of reform, and in a short time the governor's son-in-law gave up the office.

In Nova Scotia the struggle was more keen and bitter. Lord

Falkland, appointed governor in 1843, proved as unyielding to the demands of the Reformers as Sir Colin Campbell, the previous governor. The quarrel between him and Joseph Howe, the champion of the people's rights, became so bitter that Lord Falkland resigned and was succeeded by Sir John Harvey (1846); and responsible government was gained. Opposed to Joseph Howe was James W. Johnston, leader of the Conservative party, a man of great worth and sterling integrity. For over thirty years these two men, so opposite to each other in their political views as well as in temperament, held the respect and affection of their followers. In the same party with Johnston in later years was Dr. Charles Tupper; with Howe there were associated Uniacke, Young and others.

In Prince Edward Island, George Coles, a man who had raised himself from a humble position by his own efforts, was the leader of the agitation for responsible government, which was gained for that province in 1851. The population was then 65,000, and it was greatly increased in the next few years. Trade prospered owing to excellent markets in the United States for the fish and farm products. The possession of nearly all the island by absent proprietors, who did not think of improving their lands but only of collecting their rents, was still a great hindrance to progress. Many attempts had been made to arrange terms with these proprietors, but without result, until the year 1872, when an arrangement was made compelling them to sell their lands to the tenants. Prince Edward Island had a system of free school education as early as 1852. In 1855 a normal school, and in 1859 the Prince of Wales College, were established at Charlottetown. Some years after these institutions were united.

A system of free schools was introduced into Nova Scotia, in 1864, while Hon. Chas. Tupper was leader of the government; and in New Brunswick, in 1872, through the efforts of Hon. Geo. E. King, the free schools took the place of schools supported by the fees of those who sent children to them and by the government grants to teachers. Under the free school system each district or section taxed itself for the support of its own schools, the government grants being continued to teachers. The free school systems of the Atlantic provinces were planned after that of Upper Canada; but

now they go further in maintaining free high schools for **secondary** education, as well as free common schools. Great benefits have resulted from establishing such liberal provisions for education in these provinces. In Nova Scotia, J. W. Dawson, afterwards Sir William Dawson, and Rev. Dr. Forrester, both of whom filled the office of superintendent of education under the old system, did much to awaken interest in free schools. Dr. T. H. Rand was the first superintendent of education under the new system in Nova Scotia ; and when free schools came into operation in New Brunswick, in 1872, he was chosen to fill the same office there.

During the eleven years (1855-1866) that the Reciprocity Treaty with the United States was in force, a great trade had sprung up. Lumber, fish, the products of the farm and the mines, found a ready market near at hand. During the civil war in that country (1861-65), trade was unusually brisk, and the prices of fish, farm produce and horses were high. Wages were good, and merchants made large profits on their goods. The coasting vessels of the Atlantic provinces did a large carrying trade. Many men from the provinces enlisted as soldiers in the United States armies, tempted by the large bounties offered. At the close of the war, during which some events had led to ill-feeling, and at times almost to war between Great Britain and the United States, the latter country refused to renew the Reciprocity Treaty. Bands of Fenians, whose object was the independence of Ireland, thought this a favorable time to invade the British provinces. Preparations were made in the spring of 1866 to seize the Island of Campobello and use it for the invasion of New Brunswick ; and other forces gathered on the southern banks of the St. Lawrence to attack Montreal. But the United States government sent troops to the frontier, and the Fenians were dispersed. In June, another band crossed the Niagara River at Fort Erie. The Fenians were met at Ridgeway, about ten miles west of Fort Erie, by volunteers from Toronto and Hamilton, and dispersed ; but not before seven Canadians were killed and a number wounded.

Union.—At Charlottetown, on the 1st September, 1864, there was held a meeting which proved to be the turning point in the history of the provinces of British North America. On that day, delegates from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island

gathered to talk over the question of union of these three provinces. News of this meeting had gone to the provinces on the St. Lawrence, and there came knocking for admission at the doors of the Charlottetown Convention eight delegates from Canada, who had in their minds the idea of a larger union. These delegates were warmly welcomed. The larger idea was received with favour by the delegates of the sea provinces ; and a meeting was appointed for the month of October, in the city of Quebec. Here delegates met from six provinces (including Newfoundland), and after a session of eighteen days decided upon a plan of union which was to be submitted to the legislatures of the different provinces for approval. In Canada, where such a union had long been thought of as a remedy for political troubles, the plan was approved of early in the following year. Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland would have nothing to do with the proposed union. In New Brunswick, the question was submitted to the people, and nearly all the supporters of union, including Hon. S. L. Tilley, the leader of the government, were beaten at the polls. A new government opposed to union was formed, led by Hon. Albert J. Smith. In Nova Scotia, the legislature, of which Hon. Charles Tupper was the leader, refused for a time to consider the question. It is but just to state, in accounting for such a general opposition to the scheme, that the people of the Atlantic provinces had only thought of the smaller union ; too little time had been given to consider the larger union with Canada.

But a bold stroke in New Brunswick gave another turn to affairs. The lieutenant-governor, Hon. A. H. Gordon, in opposition to his ministers, favoured the union, stating that it was the wish of the British Government. His ministers resigned. Another election was held, in 1866, and Hon. S. L. Tilley was returned to power with a majority in favour of union. The Nova Scotia Legislature, without an appeal to the people, then gave its assent to union, Mr. Archibald, the opposition leader, supporting the leader of the government on the question. In the same year delegates from the four provinces met in London and framed the terms of union, which became law by Act of the British Parliament, February 28th, 1867. This, known as the British North America Act, united the Provinces of Ontario (Upper Canada), Quebec (Lower Canada),

New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and made provision by which other portions of British North America should enter the union. The act came into force July 1st, 1867.

CHAPTER X.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

The Terms of Union.—The British North America Act provided for the government of the Dominion as a whole ; for the government of each province ; and for the admission of new provinces and territories. To carry out these provisions, there must be a general or Dominion government ; a local or provincial government ; and, to add new provinces, the consent of the Sovereign of Great Britain must be obtained.

The general government has control of matters that concern all the provinces ; such as trade and commerce, the postal service, currency, banking, the defence of the country, navigation, the fisheries, the Indians, appointment of judges, criminal law, penitentiaries, taking of the census, the more important public works, public lands not belonging to any of the provinces, and other matters of common interest. The general government has also the power to veto, or forbid, any act passed by a local parliament which would be opposed to the good of the whole country. As it has control of trade and commerce, it alone can levy duties on goods coming in or going out of the country. These are called customs duties. It may also impose taxes, called excise duties, on articles manufactured for use in the country.

The power to govern and make laws for the Dominion is vested in the governor-general and his advisers or ministers, the Senate, and the House of Commons. The governor-general represents, and is appointed by, the Sovereign of Great Britain. His ministers, usually thirteen (at this time, 1901, sixteen), must possess the confidence of the representatives of the people in parliament ; and thus the principle of responsible government is recognized in the larger Canada. The Senate is composed of members from the different provinces, appointed for life by the governor-general and his advisers. The number of senators is now (1901) eighty-one.

The House of Commons, elected by the people of the different provinces, consists, as regulated by the census of 1891, of 213 members, of whom Quebec has the fixed number of 65, and the other provinces numbers in proportion to their population, as compared with that of Quebec. Elections for the House of Commons are held every five years, or, if the governor-general on the advice of his ministers should dissolve the house, at shorter intervals.

By the terms of the union each province has a local government, which consists of a lieutenant-governor and his advisers, and a legislature consisting of one or two branches,—legislative council and house of assembly. All the provinces except Quebec and Nova Scotia have but one branch, a house of assembly, the members of which are elected by the people every four years (in Nova Scotia and Quebec every five years), subject to an earlier dissolution. Lieutenant-governors are appointed by the governor-general and his advisers for a period of five years. The advisers, or executive council, of each lieutenant-governor are responsible to the house of assembly; and through this to the people of each province. The government in each province has control of such important matters as the management of all public lands, education, establishment and regulation of provincial courts of justice, property and civil rights, and other matters of local concern. As the Dominion government took charge of the trade and commerce of the country, from which the larger part of the revenue in each province had been derived, it was arranged that the Dominion government should pay an annual sum to each province, equal to eighty cents a head of the population, added to which there is a fixed allowance for the expenses of government. The provinces, especially the older ones on the St. Lawrence, had large debts which had been incurred in past years in building canals, railways and other public works. The Dominion government assumed these debts.

The New Dominion.—"Dominion Day," July 1st, 1867, was observed throughout Canada with rejoicings. Separate colonies had become a Dominion, still under the protection of the British Crown, but enjoying the fullest measure of self-government, and including during the next few years all the remaining provinces and territories of British North America, except Newfoundland.

Lord Monck, the last governor of the province of Canada, became governor-general of the Dominion. Honours were bestowed upon public men who had been foremost in bringing about the union. Sir John A. Macdonald was called upon by the governor-general to form a ministry, and the first Dominion Parliament met at Ottawa, November 6th, 1867. The following are the names and offices of those who formed the first cabinet of the Dominion of Canada:—Sir John A. Macdonald, Minister of Justice; Sir George E. Cartier, of Militia and Defence; Hon. Peter Mitchell, of Marine and Fisheries; Hon. W. McDougall, of Public Works; Sir Leonard Tilley, of Customs; Hon. C. J. Chapais, of Agriculture; Sir Alexander Galt, of Finance; Sir William Howland, of Inland Revenue; Sir Alexander Campbell, Postmaster-General; Hon. A. J. Blair, President of Council; Sir Edward Kenny, Receiver-General; Sir Hector Langevin, Secretary of State for Canada; Sir Adams Archibald, Secretary of State for the Provinces.

It will be seen by turning to the History of England (p. 128), that more than two hundred years ago the King of England began to choose his advisers from the strongest party—that is, the party that had the majority in parliament. This rule of *party government* is carried on to-day in all parts of the British Empire where there is responsible government. In Canada and the Atlantic provinces before Confederation, there had been two parties—the Conservatives and the Liberals. As members of both parties had worked to bring about Confederation, the ministers were chosen from Liberals and Conservatives alike, in the hope that the differences and strife of the old parties would be forgotten. There were some, however, as George Brown, Alexander Mackenzie, Oliver Mowat, and many other Liberals, who declined to serve with Sir John Macdonald; and there were others, as the Hon. A. J. Smith, of New Brunswick, and Hon. Joseph Howe, of Nova Scotia, who opposed confederation. These were united in their opposition to the government, and formed what is now known as the Liberal party. Sometimes one party is the stronger, sometimes the other; but the ministry is always chosen from the party that has a majority in the assembly elected by the people. This rule also prevails in the provincial parliaments; except that sometimes, as is now (1901) the

case in some of the provinces, there are coalition governments, that is, members of different parties unite, for the time, to form a government.

Unrest in Nova Scotia.—In Nova Scotia there was a strong opposition to union, because, among other reasons, the wishes of the people had not been consulted. A delegation, led by Joseph Howe, went to England to try to secure a repeal of the union, but without success. "Better terms" were given to the province in an additional yearly sum of money, as the allowance did not prove sufficient to meet the expenses of the provincial government. Opposition began slowly to die out. Joseph Howe became a member of the Dominion ministry in 1869. Four years later he was made lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, but died a month after his appointment.

The Province of Manitoba.—In the foregoing pages the history of the Hudson's Bay Company and the founding of the Red River Settlement have been briefly traced. In 1821, a charter for twenty-five years had been granted to the new Hudson's Bay Company, and this had been renewed for another twenty-five years. Shortly after Confederation, when the charter had nearly expired, the Canadian parliament, by permission of Great Britain, bought out the claims of the Company, giving it in return £300,000, some lands, and allowing it to retain certain trading privileges. In the year 1870, the new Province of Manitoba, embracing the Red River Settlement, was laid out. But, as in the case of Nova Scotia, the wishes of the people had not been consulted; and an outbreak of the half-breeds or *métis* (*mā-tēs'*), attended with confusion and bloodshed, was the result. In 1869, when the Hon. Wm. McDougall was appointed governor of the Northwest, and surveyors began their work near Fort Garry to define the limits of the new province, the half-breeds, thinking their lands were to be taken from them, stopped the survey. Under the leadership of Louis Riel (*ree-el'*), who had great influence over them, the half-breeds prepared for armed resistance. A government was formed with Riel as its head. All who were supposed to be in sympathy with the Canadians were roughly treated or taken prisoners. A loyal subject named Thomas Scott, a native of Ontario, was cruelly put to death (March, 1870) after the form of a trial. Dr. Schultz (*shoolts*), afterwards a

162

governor of Manitoba, was imprisoned in Fort Garry, but escaped and made his way in the dead of winter across the country to Lake Superior. When Governor McDougall tried to enter the territory, he met with armed resistance. He returned to Ottawa. A force of British regulars and Canadian volunteers, under command of Colonel Wolseley (lately the commander-in-chief of the British army), was sent to put down the outbreak. They were refused the privilege of entering the country by the ordinary route through the United States, and were obliged to march through the woods from Lake Superior. When they reached the Red River country, after a toilsome journey, all was quiet. Riel and other leaders had escaped to the United States. In the following year a band of Fenians threatened Manitoba; but they fled without striking a blow and were made prisoners on the border by United States troops. Sir Adams Archibald, of Nova Scotia, was made governor of Manitoba, settlers poured rapidly into the country, its prairies soon became dotted with farms, and the city of Winnipeg grew rapidly.

Other Provinces Added.—In the following year (1871), British Columbia came into the Dominion, one condition of its entrance being the building of a railway across the continent, connecting that province with the railways of the east. Two years later (1873), Prince Edward Island joined the Dominion. The Dominion government aided the people in getting rid of the land proprietors and assumed the railway debt. The Island has since steadily increased in population and wealth. It is especially noted for its agricultural and dairy products, and for live stock. No new provinces have been added to the Dominion since 1873; but the Northwest Territory has been divided into the districts of Assiniboia, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Athabaska. These four districts are governed by one lieutenant-governor and council, and are represented in the Dominion parliament by two senators and four members. The unorganized territory, north and east of the above-named divisions, has been more recently divided into the districts of Yukon, Mackenzie, Franklin, Keewatin and Ungava.

Changes in Government.—In 1868, Lord Lisgar became governor-general, and in 1872 he was succeeded by Lord Dufferin, one of the ablest and most popular governors that Canada has had. In the Dominion election of 1872, the Conservative party, led

by Sir John A. Macdonald, was returned to power, with a decreased majority. In the following year the government resigned, and a Liberal government was formed under the leadership of Alexander Mackenzie. In 1872, a majority of the people's votes had been cast against the Liberal party. It was necessary that those who accepted office in the new ministry should return to the people for re-election; or, that a general election should be held throughout the Dominion. The latter course was adopted by the advice of Mr. Mackenzie, in order that he might find out whether his government had the confidence of the people of the whole country. The election took place early in 1874, and resulted in the return of the new government by a large majority.

We must try to find out a few of the reasons for this change of opinion among the people. There were two important matters which affected the interests of the whole country. These were the settlement of certain disputes with the United States and the building of the railway to British Columbia.

International Disputes.—We have seen that the settlement of the boundary line between British America and the United States was tedious, and at times caused ill feeling that threatened to end in war. But wiser counsels prevailed. The people of the great English-speaking races in Europe and America have come to see that there is a better way to settle their disputes than with the sword. Their differences have been frequent, and at times bitter; but for nearly a century these have been arranged without bloodshed; and it is hoped that there may never arise a quarrel that cannot be settled by peaceful means.

During the Civil War in the United States, cruisers, especially one called the "Alabama," secretly fitted out in British ports by agents of the Southern States, did great damage to the shipping of the Northern States. After the war ended the government of the United States asked payment from England for these damages. This and other matters in dispute were submitted to a Joint High Commission which met in Washington, in 1871, and framed the Treaty of Washington. This commission was made up of many able and eminent men appointed by the British and United States governments. Among the British commissioners was Sir John A.

Macdonald. The home government has since honoured Canadians by appointing them on similar commissions, to arrange disputes in which Canada is interested. The Washington Commission decided that the "Alabama" claims should be settled by a board of arbitrators or judges. This board met at Geneva the following year, and awarded \$15,500,000 to the United States, which Great Britain promptly paid. The San Juan Island dispute was submitted to the Emperor of Germany, and decided in favour of the United States. The Canadian claims for damages by Fenian raids were not even considered by the commission; and the canals of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes were opened for the free use of United States vessels. The question of fishing on the coasts of the Atlantic provinces had been a source of dispute for some years. United States fishermen, since the repeal of the Reciprocity Treaty, had as free use of the fisheries as under that treaty. It was arranged that the coast fisheries of Canada and the United States should be thrown open for twelve years to the fishermen of each country, and that fish and fish oil should be admitted free of duty into either country. As the fisheries of the Atlantic provinces were more valuable, it was agreed that the United States should pay a certain sum of money, to be determined by a commission, which was to meet later. The award of this commission, which met at Halifax, in 1877, gave to Canada and Newfoundland \$5,500,000, which was paid within a year. After the expiration of the twelve years the fishery question again became the source of dispute, a dispute which is not settled yet. An arrangement was made in the meantime by which United States fishermen are allowed to fish in Canadian waters by paying a certain sum for a license.

The Treaty of Washington did not please the Canadians of Ontario, although it was satisfactory to the people of the Atlantic provinces. Another cause that tended to make the government of Sir John A. Macdonald unpopular was the "Pacific Scandal," as it was called. A company had been formed, of which Sir Hugh Allan was president, to build the Canadian Pacific Railway. It was charged that this company, in return for its charter to build the road, had given the government large sums of money to aid it in the elections of 1872. This led to an exciting debate in parliament and

to the formation of a commission of enquiry, which ended in the resignation of the Macdonald ministry.

The Canadian Pacific Railway.—It had been one of the terms of the agreement by which British Columbia entered the Dominion that a railway to connect the province with the east should be built within ten years ; but several years passed without any real attempt being made to build the road. The people of the western province became dissatisfied, and even threatened to withdraw from the union. The government of the Dominion promised a charter, with liberal aid in lands and money, to the company which should build the road ; the vastness of the work, however, and the amount of capital required discouraged more than one company. In 1875, the government began the work, but it went on slowly and with no definite system as to the manner and time of its completion. In 1878, the Mackenzie government was defeated in the elections and Sir John A. Macdonald returned again to power. In 1880, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company was formed, the government handing over to it the portions already built, and giving large subsidies in land and money (25,000,000 acres of land and \$25,000,000 in money). In the spring of 1881, the work was begun in earnest, and on the 12th of July, 1886, the first passenger train from Port Moody, on the Pacific coast, arrived in Montreal—ninety-one years after Alexander Mackenzie made the first overland journey to the Pacific !

A Protective Tariff.—In the general election campaign of 1878, Sir John A. Macdonald turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour by proposing a protective tariff. This is the “National Policy” that we have heard so much about ; and it has been the trade policy of Canada ever since, with some slight changes. It has a double aim,—to raise a sufficient revenue to meet the expenses of the country, and to *protect* and encourage the Canadian manufacturers by placing heavy duties on foreign goods of certain classes which can be made in the country. The dulness of trade that affected Canada, as well as every other country, between the years 1876 and 1879, led our people to believe that the new policy would revive Canadian trade and encourage home industries. The wonderful progress of the United States under a policy of protection was another argument in favour of the change. The Conservative party

was returned by a large majority. It introduced, in 1879, the new tariff protecting native industries ; and managed the affairs of the country for eighteen years after (1878-1896).

Sir John A. Macdonald retained the leadership until his death, which occurred June 6th, 1891, just after a general election in which his party had been returned to parliament by a large majority. Alexander Mackenzie died the following year. In the next five years Canada had five premiers, of whom four were Conservatives—Sir John Abbot, Sir John Thompson, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, and Sir Charles Tupper ; and one Liberal—Sir Wilfrid Laurier. In the general election of 1896, Sir Charles Tupper's ministry was defeated and Sir Wilfrid Laurier formed a Liberal government, which was again returned by an increased majority in 1900.

The Marquis of Lorne, son-in-law of Queen Victoria, became governor-general in 1878. During his vice-royalty, he, with his wife, the Princess Louise, visited every province of Canada. They were received with every mark of affection and loyal enthusiasm. In 1883, Lord Lansdowne became governor-general ; in 1888, Lord Stanley ; in 1893, Lord Aberdeen ; and in 1898, Lord Minto.

Outbreak in the Northwest.—The rising of half-breeds at Red River in 1869 was followed in 1885 by a much more serious outbreak of these excitable people, who had settled on the Saskatchewan River in the Northwest. The opening up of the country by railways, the coming of white hunters, settlers and land surveyors, had threatened the rude, wild life of the half-breeds, who saw their means of living disappearing by the slaughter of buffaloes and other wild animals of the plains. The delay of the government at Ottawa in listening to their complaints and in giving titles to the lands on which they had settled, soon caused a dangerous outbreak among these people, who at this time numbered about 4,000. Louis Riel, who was then living in Montana, was invited to become their leader. In 1874, he had been elected to represent a county in Manitoba in the House of Commons, but he was expelled from that body and fled to the United States. Riel now established a provisional government at Batoche, and with Gabriel Dumont (gā-bre-el' du-mōns'), another half-breed leader, prepared for armed resistance. The Indians

who some years previously had been placed on "reserves"—lands set apart for them by government—became restless and showed signs of an outbreak. In March, 1885, Dumont's followers made an attack on some mounted police and volunteers at Duck Lake Settlement, killing several and forcing the others to retreat. Many of the Indians now broke out into open revolt, and several settlers were murdered. When news of the rising reached Ottawa, General Middleton, then commander-in-chief of the forces in Canada, was sent with 2,000 volunteers, gathered from Ontario, Quebec, and the Atlantic provinces. After a toilsome and difficult march, the Canadian Pacific Railway not being completed, the volunteers from the east, joined by others from Winnipeg and the Northwest, reached the scene of the rising, and it was soon put down—not, however, without some loss of life. Batoche, where the half-breeds made a last stand, was taken. Dumont fled to the United States; Riel was captured, tried, and hanged. Great efforts were made to secure his pardon by the French Canadians of the east, many of whom sympathized with the half-breeds in their struggle. The grievances of the half-breeds and Indians have been since redressed. The Mounted Police Force, established in 1873 to preserve law and order in the Northwest, has been increased to 1,000 men, and is one of the finest bodies of troops in the world. It was chiefly from men trained in this force that the Strathcona Horse Company was enlisted for the war in South Africa, in 1900.

Some Important Laws.—Many important laws for the welfare of the Dominion have been passed since Confederation. These can only receive brief mention here. In 1871, dual representation was abolished, that is, no one could be a member of the Dominion and a provincial parliament at the same time; in 1874, secret voting by ballot, instead of open voting, was introduced, and the same law provided that elections should be held on the same day throughout the Dominion; in 1875, the Supreme Court of Canada was established, a court of appeal for cases not settled in provincial courts; in 1878, the Canada Temperance (Scott) Act provided that any section or municipality may forbid the sale of intoxicating liquors within its limits; the Dominion Franchise Act in 1885 made the right to vote for members of the House of Commons uniform throughout the Dominion. This act, however, has been

repealed by one which restores the provincial franchise in federal elections.

Law-making in the Provinces.—The important subjects that are dealt with in the different provinces make legislation there scarcely less important than in the Dominion Parliament. Although the latter has the right to veto such laws as are injurious to the general welfare, or which interfere with the rights of the minority, this power has seldom been used. After the passage of the New Brunswick School Act in 1871, the Roman Catholics appealed successively to the Governor-General, the Dominion Parliament, and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain—the highest authority in the Empire—to disallow the Act, but without avail. In 1878, Mr. Letellier de Saint-Just (le-tel'-yā' de-san'-zhoost'), lieutenant-governor of Quebec, dismissed his ministers, and for this he was dismissed by the Dominion Government in the following year. In 1889, the Dominion Government was asked to disallow an Act passed by the Quebec legislature granting \$400,000 to the Roman Catholics in payment for lands which had been taken from the Jesuits in 1760; but it refused to interfere. The Manitoba School question disturbed the country from 1890 to 1896. In 1871, Manitoba passed a "separate" school act, requiring that the children of Roman Catholics and Protestants should be taught in separate schools. In 1890, the legislature repealed this and passed a free, non-sectarian act, like that of Nova Scotia and of New Brunswick. The Catholics demanded that the act be disallowed and that they should have their separate schools. The Dominion ministers asked the Manitoba Government to so change the law as to permit this, but the latter would not yield. When Sir Wilfrid Laurier became leader of the government, in 1896, an arrangement was entered into similar to that which prevails in some other provinces—that Roman Catholic children should have religious instruction after school hours. These are some of the cases in which differences have arisen between the Dominion and provincial parliaments. The difficulty of their settlement has led to the belief that provincial legislation should not be interfered with except in extreme cases.

Material Advance.—The progress of every portion of the country since Confederation has been very marked. Under the direction of the Geological and Natural History Survey, located at Ottawa,

different sections of the Dominion are being examined, and their natural resources made more fully known to the people and to the outside world. The establishment of Dominion and Provincial Experimental Farms has given great encouragement to agriculture, fruit raising and dairying. The complete system of railways through the country, and the steamship lines between Eastern Canada and Europe, and between British Columbia and China and Japan, have led to increased travel and immigration, opening up new avenues of trade. The development of mining, fisheries and other industries of British Columbia and Western Ontario, with the discovery of new goldfields on the Klondyke, in the frozen north; the filling up of the fertile plains of Manitoba and the Northwest with an energetic farming population; the superiority of climate, fertility of soil and energy of the people of Ontario; the establishment of large iron and steel industries in Cape Breton and the shores of Georgian Bay; the cotton and pulp-mill industries; the influence of two races working together in harmony in the older province of Quebec—all these have been great forces in adding to the material wealth and prosperity of Canada.

In the Atlantic provinces, a great variety of natural resources has been industriously worked by a vigorous and self-reliant population. Many of the young people of these provinces, with a good education and with habits of industry and thrift, have sought homes for themselves in the larger provinces of the West and in the United States. In New Brunswick, the people are finding out that the true source of their wealth is in the soil, and increased attention is being given to farming, stock-raising and dairying. The building of wooden ships in this as well as in the other Atlantic provinces has ceased to be a great industry. The care of forests and better methods of lumbering are engaging the attention of the government and people of New Brunswick. In Nova Scotia, the coal mines in the east of the province, especially in Pictou county and in Cape Breton, are being developed on a larger scale than heretofore. Farming and fruit-growing are carried on with great success in the Annapolis valley and in other districts. In the Atlantic provinces, the fisheries must always remain a steady source of wealth, and their preservation a constant care of the government and people. Many flourishing manufactures are also growing up throughout the

provinces. Prince Edward Island has increased in wealth and population, and her products of the farm and dairy are well known. The Island has felt the need of an improved steam service with the other provinces all the year round. This was promised by the general government when the Island came into the Dominion. The failure to provide such communication has led the Dominion Government this year (1901) to grant "better terms" by giving the sum of \$30,000 a year in addition to the amount annually received by the Island from the Dominion. There is a fine system of railway communication between all parts of Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the West. The Inter-colonial Railway, built since Confederation, has recently been extended to Montreal, and the Canadian Pacific Railway now has a line across Maine to connect with the Atlantic province system of railways. Great improvements have been made in steam communication between Canada and other countries; but there is still required a fast line steamship service all the year round between Great Britain and Canada.

Newfoundland.—The Island of Newfoundland has not yet cast in its lot with the Dominion. In 1895, when Newfoundland was the scene of great depression in trade, and when great distress prevailed among the people, a proposal was made for union; but unfortunately the Dominion Government and the Island delegates could not agree upon the terms. A railway has been built across the Island from St. John's to Port aux Basques (port'-ō-bask') on the west. From that point there is steamship communication with Cape Breton, connecting the Island with the great railway system of Canada.

Some Recent Events.—Some years ago, a dispute arose between Canada and the United States about the right of catching seals in the Bering Sea. The latter country claimed possession of the sea, and captured Canadian vessels engaged in the seal fishery there. The dispute was settled peaceably by arbitrators, who decided that the sea did not belong to the United States, and that country was called upon to pay for the vessels seized. The question concerning the protection of seals in those waters has not yet been settled, although a joint high commission to arrange this and the Alaskan boundary, the fisheries question, reciprocity of

trade and other matters in dispute, met at Quebec in 1898, and afterwards at Washington in 1899. The commission devoted much time and attention to these questions, but failed to come to a decision.

In June, 1894, delegates from Great Britain, New Zealand, Australia, Cape Colony and Canada, met in Ottawa to talk over plans for furthering trade and communication. Though nothing definite was accomplished, the meeting together of men from widely different parts of the Empire had a good effect. Since that time a preferential tariff in regard to Great Britain has been adopted ; lower duties being laid on imports into Canada from that country than from foreign countries.

In 1894, Sir John Thompson, Canada's prime minister, was sworn in a member of the privy council of England, an honour bestowed on Sir John A. Macdonald some years before, and on Sir Wilfrid Laurier three years later. A few hours after the ceremony, Sir John Thompson died suddenly at Windsor Castle. His body was sent to Canada in a British warship, and honoured with a state funeral at Halifax.

Two cities of the Dominion have suffered greatly from fires. On the 20th of June, 1877, St. John was visited by a destructive fire which caused the loss of upwards of \$20,000,000 worth of property ; and on the 26th April, 1900, a large part of the city of Ottawa was laid in ashes. Assistance was sent from Great Britain, United States and from different parts of Canada to those who had been ruined and left destitute by these calamities.

The outbursts of enthusiasm that witnessed the departure of the Canadian soldiers to fight the battles of the Empire in South Africa, have never been equalled in Canada. The first Canadian regiment, consisting of 1,000 men, under the command of Colonel Otter, left Quebec for Capetown late in October, 1899 ; and the second contingent, numbering over 1,000—artillerymen and mounted riflemen—left Halifax early in the following year. These were followed by a troop of 600 mounted soldiers from the west, raised and equipped by Lord Strathcona. Many lost their lives in battle, and from wounds and disease. Their graves on the South African veldt lie side by side with those from other parts of the

Empire who lost their lives in fighting the battles of the Motherland. Those who returned in the latter part of 1900, and early in the year 1901, were met with every token of joy and welcome throughout the Dominion.

Social and Intellectual Progress.—A sketch of progress in Canada would not be complete without some reference to the intellectual and social life of its people. The systems of free schools in the provinces, the high schools and colleges everywhere within their borders, and the increase of wealth and leisure, have encouraged a taste for science, art and literature. The artists and poets of Canada have been content to depict its grand natural scenery, the wealth of beauty in mountain and plain, lake and river. Its poets and prose writers have told us the story of its romantic past. The fame of many of these writers has gone beyond their native country. Nova Scotia has given birth to Howe, Haliburton and to Sir William Dawson, whose name stands foremost in the Dominion for his teachings and writings on science. The age of literature and science came later in New Brunswick and Quebec, but there are now poets and prose writers in these provinces whose work takes high rank. In history, science and literature there are many well-known names in Ontario and the west. The Royal Society of Canada, to encourage literature and science, and the Royal Canadian Academy to encourage art, were founded by the Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise, whose names are remembered with gratitude for the interest they took in the social and intellectual life of the country.

Growth of a National Spirit.—A third of a century ago, the country we are now proud to call Canada was made up of colonies or provinces with separate interests and with few ties to bind them together. Now they are joined, with a growing ambition to become knit together more closely as a Dominion and more closely united to the Great British Empire, of which they form an important part. The past few years have seen the growth of this desire for the greater union, called Imperial Federation—as yet only a thought taking shape. On the other side of the world the British colonies on a great Island-Continent have formed themselves into the Commonwealth of Australia, similar to our own Dominion. Two years ago, when Great Britain was forced into a war with the

Boers of South Africa, volunteers from Canada and other parts of the Empire won the highest praise for the coolness and courage which they showed on many a hard-fought battlefield. On the 20th of June, 1897, the "Diamond Jubilee," the people of Canada had hailed with rejoicing the completion of Queen Victoria's sixty years of rule over her vast empire; and on the 22nd of January, 1901, they mourned, with a sorrow just as sincere, the death of that great and good Queen. The accession of her eldest son, Albert Edward, to the throne, with the title of Edward VII., called forth rejoicings, no less sincere though more subdued on account of the loss of the Nation's Queen. The visit, a few months later, of the Duke of Cornwall and York, the King's eldest son, and the heir to the British throne, has given Canadians, as well as the other inhabitants of Britain's great colonies throughout the world, another opportunity to testify their loyalty and attachment to the Motherland.

Thus has the bond of union become closer, and a national spirit and a firmer devotion to the Empire grown rapidly in the past few years, giving a fresh life to its statesmen and people, and calling upon all to sink whatever is petty, mean and base, and to rise to a purer and nobler national life.

POPULATION OF CANADA BY PROVINCES.

	1891.	1901.
Ontario.....	2,114,321	2,167,978
Quebec.....	1,488,535	1,620,974
New Scotia.....	450,396	469,116
New Brunswick.....	321,263	331,093
Manitoba.....	152,506	246,464
British Columbia.....	98,173	190,000
Prince Edward Island.....	109,078	103,253
The Territories.....	98,967	220,000

IMPORTANT EVENTS IN CANADIAN HISTORY.

[Leading Events are printed in heavy-faced type.]

DISCOVERY AND ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION, 1000-1600.

Coming of Northmen, about..	1000
Columbus discovers America, Oct. 12.....	1492
The Cabots land on Cape Breton, June 24.....	1497
The Cabots' second voyage.....	1498
Cortereal sails along the coast of Labrador.....	1500
Fishing vessels visit the coast of Newfoundland.....	1504
Sebastian Cabot enters Hudson's Bay.....	1517
Verrazano sails from Florida to Newfoundland.....	1524
Jacques Cartier explores the Gulf of St. Lawrence.....	1534
He ascends the River St. Lawrence.....	1535
Attempts (with Roberval) to plant a colony at Quebec..	1541-2
Martin Frobisher attempts to find the "North-West passage,"....	1576-78
Sir Francis Drake explores the Pacific Coast to the 48th parallel.....	1578-79
Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempts to colonize Newfoundland.....	1579-83

CONQUEST AND COLONIZATION, 1603-1663.

Champlain's First Voyage....	1603
He explores the Bay of Fundy	1604
Founds Port Royal.....	1605
Founds Quebec.....	1608
He is made Governor of Canada.....	1612
His Death.....	1635

First of the Jesuit Fathers land at Port Royal.....	1611
Port Royal captured and destroyed by Argall.....	1613
Recollet Fathers arrive at Quebec.....	1615
Acadia granted to Sir William Alexander.....	1621
Jesuit Fathers establish themselves at Quebec.....	1625-26
Company of the "One Hundred Associates" formed...	1627
Port Royal taken by the English.....	1628
Quebec taken by the English.....	1629
Restored (with Acadia) to the French by Treaty of St. German-en-Laye.....	1632
Jesuit missions established in the Huron Country.....	1640
Montreal founded.....	1642
Fort La Tour taken.....	1645
Jesuit missions in Huron Country destroyed.....	1648-9
English again in possession of Acadia.....	1654
Defence of Long Sault (rapids)....	1660
Company of "One Hundred Associates" surrenders its charter.....	1663

CANADA UNDER FRENCH RULE, 1663-1713.

Canada becomes a Crown Colony.....	1663
Quebec Seminary (afterwards Laval University) founded.....	1663
Succession of earthquakes throughout Canada, February to August	1663

West India Company formed, with trading privileges in Canada, Acadia, West Indies.....	1664
Acadia restored to France by the Treaty of Breda.....	1667
The Recollet Fathers re-established in Canada.....	1669
Hudson's Bay Company formed....	1670
Frontenac governor of Canada.....	1672
Marquette and Jolliet discover the Mississippi.....	1672
La Salle passes down the Mississippi.	1681
Frontenac's recall.....	1682
His successor, M. de la Barr, makes peace with the Iroquois.....	1684
Massacre of La Chine.....	1689
Frontenac again governor.....	1689
Three French War parties attack the English Settlements to the South	1690
English Capture Port Royal and unsuccessfully attack Quebec and Montreal.....	1690
The Iroquois country devastated by Frontenac.....	1691
Treaty of Ryswick.....	1697
Death of Frontenac.....	1698
"Queen Anne's War" begins.....	1702
Marquis de Vaudreuil, governor of Canada.....	1703-25
Col. Church devastates Acadia....	1704
Final Capture of Port Royal (Annapolis Royal) by the English.....	1710
Treaty of Utrecht.....	1713

CONQUEST OF CANADA, 1714-1763.

French begin to fortify Louisbourg.....	1714
First lighthouse erected in Canada at Louisbourg.....	1734
First Capture of Louisbourg.	1745
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle....	1748
Founding of Halifax.....	1749
Of Dartmouth.....	1750
Of Lunenburg.....	1753
Halifax Gazette issued, first newspaper in British North America.....	1752

Marquis Duquesne governor of Canada.....	1752
Capture of Fort Beauséjour (Cumberland), June 16.....	1755
Braddock defeated, July 9.....	1755
Exile of the Acadians, Sept....	1755
Gen. Wm. Johnson defeats the French at Lake George, Sept. 8..	1755
Montcalm takes Fort Oswego.....	1756
Montcalm captures Fort William Henry on Lake George.....	1757
Second Capture of Louisbourg.	1758
Cape Breton and St. John Island become British possessions.....	1758
First Legislative Assembly in Canada, meets in Halifax..	1758
Fort Niagara taken by Sir William Johnson.....	1759
Battle of the Plains of Abraham, Sept. 13.....	1759
Surrender of Quebec, Sept. 18.	1759
Newfoundland recognized as a British colony.....	1759
Gen. Murray defeated at St. Foye.	1760
Battle of Petit Roche, July.....	1760
Montreal surrendered to British, Sept. 8.....	1760
Canada ceded to Great Britain by Treaty of Paris, Feb. 10	1763

CANADA UNDER BRITISH RULE, 1763.

Conspiracy of Pontiac.....	1763-64
County of Sunbury, New Brunswick, formed.....	1765
Sir Guy Carleton governor of Canada.....	1766
St. John (Prince Edward Island) becomes a separate province.	1769
First Assembly in P. E. Island (second in Canada) called....	1773
Quebec Act passed.....	1774
Revolutionary War breaks out	1775
Canada invaded.....	1775
An unsuccessful attack made on Quebec by Montgomery and Arnold, Dec. 31.....	1775
British Fleet arrives before Quebec.	1776

United States forces driven out of Canada	1776
Arnold's Fleet destroyed on Lake Champlain	1776
General Haldimand becomes governor	1778
Capt. Cook explores the Coast of British Columbia	1778
British Fur Station established at Nootka Sound	1780
Public Grammar School founded at Halifax	1780
Treaty of Versailles, Sept. 3. ..	1783
Landing of United Empire Loyalists at St. John, May 18 ..	1783
St. John incorporated	1783
Cape Breton becomes a separate province	1784
New Brunswick proclaimed a separate province	1784
First mail route opened in Canada, between Halifax and Quebec	1784
First Legislative Assembly of N. B., called in St. John	1786
First Classical School opened at Kingston, Ont	1786
Fredericton becomes the capital of New Brunswick	1786
Sir Guy Carleton (Lord Dorchester) becomes first governor-general of the B.N.A. Provinces	1787
Mackenzie reaches Arctic Ocean by Mackenzie River	1789
King's College opened at Windsor	1790
Constitutional Act passed	1791
Division of Canada into Upper and Lower	1791
First Legislative Assembly of Upper Canada meets	1792
Mackenzie crosses the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific	1793
Prince Edward, Duke of Kent, visits Halifax	1794
York (Toronto) becomes capital of Upper Canada	1794
T. C. Haliburton (Sam Slick) born, Dec. 17	1796
King's College (University of New Brunswick) founded	1800

Joseph Howe born, Dec. 13	1804
Public Grammar School founded in St. John	1805
First Canadian steamboat launched at Montreal	1809
Selkirk's Settlement on Red River founded	1812

THE WAR OF 1812.

War declared between Great Britain and United States, June 18	1812
Capture of Fort Mackinaw by Canadians and Indians, July 17	1812
Detroit surrenders, Aug. 16	1812
Battle of Queenston Heights, Oct. 13	1812
Gen. Dearborn repulsed at Lacolle River, Nov. 30	1812
Battle of Frenchtown	1813
York (Toronto) captured by United States troops, April	1813
Sir John Harvey's successful night attack at Stoney Creek, June 5. ..	1813
U.S. troops captured at Beaver Dams, June 24	1813
Defeat of British Fleet on Lake Erie, Sept. 13	1813
Proctor defeated at Moraviantown, Oct. 5	1813
De Salaberry defeats Hampton at Chateauguay, Oct. 26	1813
Battle of Chrysler's Farm, Nov. 11	1813
U.S. troops repulsed at Lacolle Mill, March 30	1814
Oswego captured by British, May 6 ..	1814
Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25 ..	1814
Defeat of British Fleet on Lake Champlain, Sept. 11	1814
Treaty of Ghent, Dec. 24	1814

BEFORE CONFEDERATION, 1815-1867.

First Steamer on the St. John River	1816
Hudson's Bay and North-West Fur Companies united	1816
Pictou Academy founded	1816

Grand Manan and other islands in Bay of Fundy declared British territory.....	1817	Responsible Government established in N.S. and N.B.	1848
First complete census of Nova Scotia (population 81,351)....	1817	In P.E. Island.....	1851
Sir Leonard Tilley born, May 8....	1818	In Newfoundland.....	1855
Cape Breton reunited to Nova Scotia.....	1820	First telegraph message between St. John and Halifax, Nov. 9.....	1849
Sir Wm. Dawson, born at Pictou, N.S., Oct. 13.....	1820	Municipal Act passed in Ontario...	1849
Lachine Canal begun.....	1821	In New Brunswick.....	1872
First complete census of New Brunswick, (population 74,176).....	1824	In Nova Scotia.....	1879
Great Fire at Miramichi.....	1825	General acts were passed providing for the incorporation of all the counties in those provinces. These acts have been consolidated and enlarged in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick during recent years, providing the fullest measure of independence to the people of any defined district in managing their local affairs and carrying on efficiently any public improvements. Before the passage of municipal laws, the cities of St. John, Halifax and Fredericton had been incorporated, with a few towns in each province, and in New Brunswick several counties; but for this it was necessary to get a special act or charter from the legislature. In Nova Scotia a general act for the incorporation of towns was adopted in 1838. Before the incorporation of counties and towns, the general sessions in each county, composed of justices of the peace, had attended to all local affairs.	
King's College (University of Toronto), founded.....	1827	First Submarine Cable laid in North America, between N.B. and P.E. Island.....	1851
McGill College opened.....	1829	Postage stamps first used in Canada.....	1851
Outbreak of cholera at Quebec....	1832	Free Schools established in P.E. Island.....	1852
First Assembly elected in Newfoundland.....	1832	In Nova Scotia.....	1864
First Steamer to cross the Atlantic— <i>Royal William</i> —from Pictou, N.S., to London in 23 days.....	1833	In New Brunswick.....	1872
First Canadian railway opened, between Laprairie and St. Johns, P.Q.....	1836		
Joseph Howe first enters Nova Scotia Legislature.....	1837		
Queen Victoria's Accession....	1837		
Rebellion in Canada.....	1837-38		
First penny newspaper printed in Canada and the British Empire, St. John, N.B., <i>News</i>	1838		
Lord Durham's report to British Parliament.....	1839		
Upper and Lower Canada united.....	1841		
Boundary between Maine and New Brunswick settled.....	1842		
Queen's College, Kingston, opened	1842		
Mount Allison Academy, Sackville, opened.....	1843		
Ladies' College opened.....	1854		
University of Mount Allison organized.....	1862		
Treaty of Oregon.....	1846		

Reciprocity Treaty with U.S. ..	1854
Discovery of Gold in British Columbia	1857
Decimal Currency adopted instead of pounds, shillings and pence...	1858
Government established in British Columbia	1858
First Atlantic Cable laid	1858
First overland journey between Upper Canada and Pacific Ocean.....	1859
Railway opened, St. John to Shediac.....	1860
The Prince of Wales, now Edward VII, visited Canada	1860
Civil War in United States	1861-65
Confederation conference at Charlottetown, Sept. 1	1864
At Quebec, Oct. 10	1864
Battle of Ridgeway.....	1866
Union of British Columbia and Vancouver Island into one province..	1866
Threatened Fenian invasion of Campobello.....	1866
B.N.A. Act passed by British Parliament, March 29	1867
Dominion of Canada proclaimed, July 1	1867

AFTER CONFEDERATION, 1867-1902.

Assassination of T. d'Arcy McGee, April 7	1868
Lord Lisgar, governor-general....	1868
The Saxby Gale, Oct. 5.....	1869
Red River Rebellion	1869-70
Province of Manitoba formed	1870
Hudson's Bay Territory transferred to Canada	1870
Fenians invade Canada, May	1870
British Columbia enters Dominion	1871
Treaty of Washington, May 8	1871
Fenian raid in Manitoba, Oct	1871
First Census of Dominion taken (population, 3,635,024).....	1871
Dual Representation abolished	1871
British regular troops withdrawn from Quebec.....	1871

Lord Dufferin, governor-general, ..	1872
General Election, Conservatives in majority	1872
Intercolonial Railway opened between St. John and Halifax....	1872
Joseph Howe, lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia	1873
Died, June 1.....	1873
P. E. Island enters Dominion ..	1873
Island of San Juan awarded to United States	1873
Death of Sir George E. Cartier, May 20	1873
The Mackenzie Administration formed	1873
General Election, Liberals in majority	1874
Voting by secret ballot adopted...	1874
Supreme Court of Canada established	1875
Intercolonial Railway opened from Quebec to Halifax	1876
Great Fire in St. John, June 20....	1877
Canada Temperance (Scott) Act passed	1878
Marquis of Lorne, governor-general	1878
General Election, Conservatives in majority	1878
Protective policy adopted in tariff.	1879
First Canadian appointed to Imperial Privy Council, Sir John A. Macdonald	1879
Sir A. T. Galt appointed Canadian High Commissioner in London ..	1880
Death of Hon. George Brown.....	1880
Royal Academy of Arts founded...	1880
All British Possessions on North American continent (except Newfoundland) annexed to Canada	1880
Canadian Pacific Railway Company incorporated	1881
First sod on main line turned, May 2	1881
Line completed, Nov. 7	1885
Short line across Maine open for traffic, June 2	1889
C. P. R. cars enter Halifax, June 3	1889

Royal Society of Canada founded..	1881	General Election, Liberals in ma-	
Lord Lansdowne, governor-general	1883	jority	1896
Canadian Contingent volun-		Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Premier of	
teered for service on the Nile		Canada	1896
and in Soudan	1884	Diamond Jubilee of Queen Vic-	
Imperial Federation League (Brit-		toria, June 20.....	1897
ish Empire League) formed at		Joint High Commission meets at	
Montreal	1884	Quebec	1898
Outbreak in the North-West ..	1885	At Washington	1899
Riel hanged, Nov. 16.....	1885	Lord Minto, governor-general	1898
Dominion Franchise Act passed....	1885	War breaks out in South	
General Election, Conservatives in		Africa.....	1899
majority.....	1887	Departure of First Contingent from	
Imperial Conference held in		Quebec, Oct. 30.....	1899
London	1887	Death of Sir Wm. Dawson, Nov. 19	1899
Jubilee Year of Queen Victoria	1887	Departure of Second Contingent	
Lord Stanley, governor-general....	1888	from Halifax, Jan.-Feb.....	1900
The Jesuits' Estates Act.....	1888	Battle of Paardeberg, Feb. 27	1900
General Election, Conservatives in		Great Fire in Ottawa and Hull,	
majority.....	1891	April 26	1900
Death of Sir John A. Macdonald		General Election, Liberals in ma-	
June 6.....	1891	jority, Nov. 7.....	1900
Death of Hon. Alex. Mackenzie		Commonwealth of Australia	
April 17.....	1892	proclaimed, Jan. 1.....	1901
Legislative Council of New Bruns-		Death of Queen Victoria, Jan.	
wick abolished	1892	22	1901
Legislative Council of P. E. Island		Accession of King Edward VII,	
abolished.....	1893	Jan. 22	1901
Earl of Aberdeen, governor-general	1893	Visit to Canada of Duke and Duchess	
Colonial Conference at Ottawa, June	1894	of Cornwall and York (Prince and	
Death of Sir John Thompson at		Princess of Wales)	1901
Windsor Castle, Dec. 12.....	1894	Death of Lord Dufferin, Feb. 12....	1902
Discovery of gold in the Klondyke	1896	Duration of New Brunswick legis-	
Sir Charles Tupper becomes leader		lature made five years instead of	
of Conservative party	1896	four.....	1902

SKETCH OF THE HISTORY
OF
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND
BY
H. M. ANDERSON

SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND

The History of Prince Edward Island naturally divides itself into two great periods,—the first from its discovery by Europeans to 1763 ; the second from 1763 to the present day. We may again subdivide the history of the Island into five periods thus :—1st, under French rule ; 2nd, under British rule from 1763 to 1800, when the name was changed to Prince Edward ; 3rd, from 1800 to 1851, when responsible government was granted ; 4th, from 1851 to Confederation with the Dominion, accomplished in 1873 ; and 5th, from 1873 to the present day.

The date and name of the discoverer of Prince Edward Island are uncertain. It is commonly believed that Cabot in 1497 visited its shores and gave it the name Saint Jean, but this is rather improbable. The French claim Verrazano as the discoverer, while others hold that Cartier was the first to sight it in 1534. However, the fact remains that this beautiful little Island was discovered by some navigator very early in Canadian History and was named Isle Saint Jean.

The aborgines of Isle Saint Jean belonged to the Abenaki and Micmac tribes of Indians. These first inhabitants called it Abegweit (resting on the wave), a poetic and descriptive name. There is little known about these savage tribes. In many parts of the country remains of them are found, and in the west there is evidence of a great battle having taken place at some remote period. The only Indians now found on the Island are Micmacs but very few of them are of pure Indian blood.

Isle Saint Jean, along with other parts of Canada, is said to have been claimed by the French King as early as the 16th century. But this little corner of the New World does not seem to have received any attention for over one hundred years. Towards the end of that century grants were made of various islands in the Gulf to companies desirous of carrying on an extensive fishery. Naturally these had no interest in the permanent colonization of

the country, their only object being to erect stages and perhaps a shack or two to carry on their work. In spring a large number of fishermen visited the Island, and in the autumn returned to France leaving the Micmacs again in undisputed possession.

The first colonists who came to the Island about the year 1719 were two families from France, one Matthew Turin, who settled at East Point, and Francis Douville at St. Peters. They were both fishermen from Normandy and had large families. The first settler at Port la Joye was one Hache Galland. These pioneers were soon joined by others, and in 1720 there were seventeen families of one hundred and thirty-five souls. A fort was built at Port la Joye (of which traces may yet be found near the block-house at the entrance of the harbour), and an intendant or governor, subject to the commander at Louisburg, lived there with a small garrison.

The difficulties of these first settlers must have been very great, for the country was entirely covered by woods down to the water's edge, while the severity of the winter greatly increased their hardships. About the year 1728 there was a steady influx of Acadians from Nova Scotia, and so greatly had the population increased that it is thought that, at the cession of the Island to the British, there were probably in it from four to six thousand inhabitants. Some of the districts settled during this period were :—Malpeque, Pinette River, Savage Harbour, Tracadie, Morell, Rustico (called Racico) Souris, Crapaud, Fortune, etc. During this long period, from 1719 to 1763, the Island was little disturbed by the continual war waging on the adjoining continent between the French and English settlers. The only mention of an invasion is after the first siege of Louisburg in 1745, when a band of troops is said to have destroyed Three Rivers and attacked Port la Joye. Small bands of Island French, accompanied by Indians, often rendered valuable assistance to their friends on the mainland.

There is a great diversity of opinion with regard to the state of the Island under French rule. While some maintain that the inhabitants lived almost entirely by fishing and hunting, others hold that cultivation was carried to a high point of perfection. By taking a little from both accounts the truth will more likely be reached.

When the English occupied the Island in 1763 there were no signs of any extensive clearing away of the forest except along the river banks, such as on the Hillsborough, Dunk, and the Morell near St. Peter's, where a large amount of grain was sown and reaped. Indeed it is related by a French officer who made a trip up the Hillsborough some years previous to this date and crossed to Saint Peter's, that smiling cornfields greeted him on every hand and that the country surrounding St. Peter's abounded in all kinds of grain. The spiritual wants of this simple people were well looked after, and churches were built at Port la Joye, Point Prim, at St. Peter's Harbour, and other places, and, in 1753, priests were stationed in all these districts. Unfortunately for these peaceful peasants this quiet pastoral life was sadly wrecked when the British came to claim the Island by right of conquest, and ruthlessly destroyed churches and dwellings, and transported all the inhabitants they could seize. Many fled in terror to the mainland, while others sought the more inaccessible recesses of the forest. The majority seem to have either been expelled or fled voluntarily from the Island, as the population was believed to be 4,100 at the time of cession. But a few years later Governor Wilmot mentions in a report that only 300 French remain on Saint John's Island. What became of these thousands of innocent peasants it is hard to say—many conjectures are formed but nothing is known.

BRITISH RULE—1763 to 1800.

The fall of Louisburg and Isle Saint Jean were soon followed by that of Quebec, and in 1763 a treaty of peace was signed between France and England, ceding New France to the British.

In 1764 a general survey of the new British possessions in North America was ordered, and Captain Samuel Holland was appointed Surveyor-General of the Northern district of the newly acquired territory. He was instructed to begin with St. John's Island. Captain Holland set sail in the "Canceau" from Britain in 1764, and, after an eventful voyage, reached Quebec on the 19th of July, where he was obliged to remain for some months, as his vessel needed repair, after the severe weather which he had encountered. The captain obtained all the information possible concerning the Island, and supplied himself with many articles which he found most useful on his arrival there.

On the 6th of October he landed at Fort Amherst (near what is now the block-house). This fort consisted of very poor barracks, hardly sufficient for the garrison. Captain Holland had hoped to secure a lodging for the winter in the fort, but on arriving there he saw that it was out of the question. He therefore set to work, and with the aid of his assistants and others, converted the frame of an old barn into a fairly comfortable house. The building material brought from Quebec proved most useful, as nothing of the sort could be had in the vicinity. His house was situated in a cove near the seashore, called by Holland "Observation Cove" (now "Holland Cove"). The "Canceau" was laid up for the winter in a bay afterwards named "Canceau Cove."

On arrival at Fort Amherst, Lieutenant Mowatt of the "Canceau" refused further aid to Holland, saying that his instructions would not permit it. After correspondence with the authorities, both in Britain and Quebec, these matters were adjusted, and Lieutenant Mowatt gave all the assistance in his power. The intrepid surveyor, however, had been hard at work from the day of his arrival, taking observations and sending out parties to survey the country. From letters of his, written to Lord Hillsborough and others in London, we get a very accurate idea of the climate and general condition of the Island at that period. Frost set in early in November, and continued until spring, with short intervals of mild weather, while the early part of the winter was so severe that surveying was out of the question. About the 15th of February, on the cold moderating, work was commenced. Captain Holland's company, with Acadian guides, consisted of thirty-one men, who were divided into four parties and dispatched to different sections of the Island. This was exclusive of Lieutenant Mowatt and his company who would at that time render no assistance. Their only means of carrying provisions was on dog sleighs, and the hardships endured by these worthy men must have been very great. However, a large amount of work was accomplished, though many suffered from frost-bites.

Nevertheless in spring, when a more extensive survey could be undertaken, all were ready to start out again with renewed vigour. In the autumn of 1765 this work was completed, and Captain

Holland left for the mainland. From letters and other documents, now in London, it is evident that the surveyor-general thought most favourably of St. John's Island, not only of its beauty in summer and the value of the fisheries (which was always a consideration at that time), but for the marvellous fertility of the soil and the general advantages for settlers. Captain Holland also requested that he might be apportioned some land on this Island instead of another possession which had been offered him. In choosing sites for the towns, Charlottetown was selected in the harbour of Port la Joye as the most convenient site for a capital, being within easy reach of every section of the country. Georgetown was chosen on account of its fine harbour, and, as the surveyor considered, in a good position for trade. Princetown was also located by him, but, as we know, never even became a village.

Before Holland's plans arrived in London, glowing accounts had reached it of the value of this country and various projects were formed for its colonization. One proposed by Lord Egmont seemed rather absurd, and yet it might have proved more beneficial to the new colony than the plan adopted. After due consideration the government in England decided to dispose of it in allotments of 20,000 acres each. There were sixty-seven of these. Three were reserved by the Imperial Government for various purposes, while the remaining sixty-four were disposed of by ballot in a single day to men who appeared to have, or who really had, some claim on the government. This wholesale and indiscriminate disposal of the Island was the first chapter in what proved to be the never ending land question which remained a bone of contention for over a hundred years.

A year after the grant was made a number of the proprietors petitioned the King to have the Island formed into a separate province as hitherto it had been under the government of Nova Scotia. A promise was made by the proprietors that if their petition were granted they would commence immediate payment of quit-rents which were not due until four years later. The quit-rent, one of the most important conditions attached to the grant, was only to become payable five years after the date of concession, and was to be devoted to the expenses of government, etc.

In 1770 their request was acceded to and St. John's Island was declared a distinct province. Walter Patterson, who, with his brother, owned lot 19, was sent out as governor. Little or nothing had been attempted up to this time towards the settlement or development of the country. There were not more than 150 families and only five resident proprietors on the Island. Patterson settled some Acadians at St. Eleanor's, and the owners of lot 18 brought out a number of families from Argyleshire and located them along the shore of Richmond Bay. Chief Baron Montgomery, one of the few land owners who showed an interest in the colony, was responsible for the planting of a settlement at Cove Head, which to the present day is very prosperous. Captain Macdonald brought out 300 Scottish Highlanders to Tracadie, while in several other parts of the country settlements were commenced.

In 1773 Governor Patterson called together the first house of assembly, which consisted of eighteen members. The first and only important business to be discussed was the "Land Question." A bill was passed to insure the payment of quit-rents, but it was not enforced, and the salaries of the governor and officials were paid out of £3,000 which had been destined for public buildings. In 1775 Patterson visited England, and was successful in having the Island put on the same constitutional basis as the other colonies.

During the absence of the Governor, Mr. Callbeck acted as administrator. The Revolutionary War was at its height in America at this time, and though the Island was in no way seriously affected one little incident occurred which is worth recounting. Two rebel ships from Boston visited Charlottetown, and, finding it without defense, plundered the town and carried off the administrator and Mr. Wright, surveyor-general, and a member of the council. On their arrival in Boston they were immediately liberated by Washington with expressions of the greatest regret, and the booty was all returned. After this affair troops were sent to protect the Island. During the remainder of the war there was no further disturbance. Sometimes captured ships were brought to Charlotte-town harbour, but the crews were generally sent to Halifax.

On the return of Patterson in 1780 he at once commenced proceedings for the recovery of the quit-rents, and nine whole and five

half lots were declared forfeited and sold. The assembly refused to sanction these sales. Parliament was promptly dissolved and another called but still consent was refused. The house was again dismissed by the governor, and in 1785 an assembly met which readily acceded to everything he proposed, and the sales of 1781 were ratified. But the bill was disallowed by the British Government; and in 1786 Patterson was recalled. He claimed that his recall was only a temporary one until matters could be cleared up, and, when General Edmund Fanning, who had been appointed to succeed him, arrived on the Island, he refused to retire. They both remained in the colony for the winter. In the spring, Patterson received a peremptory recall from England. It was unfortunate that the first ruler of this colony should have acted so unwisely. As a man much good is said of him but as a governor he certainly proved himself quite incompetent.

General Edmund Fanning, who became Governor in 1786, did not actually assume the post until the spring of 1788. He was a native of the province of New York, and had distinguished himself in the late war. There is a great diversity of opinion in regard to General Fanning's conduct of affairs in this province. By some he is praised as a wise and just administrator, and by others blamed as only caring for the acquisition of land for which he certainly seems to have had a passion. After all the quarreling over the sales of 1781, it was found inexpedient to render them void and they were finally confirmed by the home authorities.

The burning question during the Fanning administration was concerning the land, especially that promised to the Loyalists on their arrival here after the war, during the agitation respecting which the Governor incurred much odium. A bill was passed by the assembly to confirm the Loyalists in the possession of their land but the governor deferred it from time to time, and it was with great difficulty that some had their titles made good. Progress was exceedingly slow at this period, but several new settlements were commenced and the population considerably increased. In 1798 the Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria, visited Halifax and returned afterwards as commander-in-chief of his Majesty's forces in North America. He showed a keen interest in the province, and

ordered the re-building of the barracks and harbour forts. In 1799 the Island assembly decided to change the name from Saint John's Island to that of Prince Edward in honour of the Duke of Kent, and also to avoid the confusion caused by the neighboring cities of nearly the same name. The new century was commenced under a new name, and under most propitious circumstances for success in the future. Many settlers had come to its shores, and still others followed. The population at this period was 5,000, and that of Charlottetown about 300.

THIRD PERIOD—1800 to 1851.

The first assembly convoked at the beginning of the century passed a bill by which an equitable arrangement was made for the payment of quit-rents. A number of the proprietors availed themselves of this opportunity to dispose of their property, while others evaded the law and still retained their holdings.

One of the new purchasers was Lord Selkirk, who brought out 800 immigrants from the Highlands of Scotland. He proved to be an excellent landlord and gave every assistance in his power to his tenants.

In 1805 Governor Fanning was succeeded by Colonel J. F. W. DesBarres who, though eminently fitted for an administrative post, was unfortunately far advanced in years, and had not the vigour necessary for his difficult position. Nevertheless good progress was made, and an era of prosperity seemed to be opening.

In 1812 war was declared by the United States against Britain. Though other parts of Canada suffered by this disastrous event the Island was little disturbed. The following year was marked by the advent of a new governor, and Charles Douglas Smith, a brother of Sir Sidney Smith, replaced Col. DesBarres at the head of affairs. Governor Smith showed himself a most arbitrary ruler. He quarreled with successive assemblies, and during the last three years of his administration the legislature was not called together at all. Many petty and some serious charges were brought against him, until, in 1823, his rule becoming intolerable to a large number of the inhabitants, a request was

made to the high sheriff to have meetings called in order to discuss grievances. The governor did all in his power to stop proceedings, and dismissed Mr. MacGregor who was then sheriff. The meetings nevertheless were very largely attended. Petitions were drafted, signed by the principal men of the colony, and Captain John Stewart was commissioned to carry the petition to Britain. The governor endeavoured to detain him by ordering his arrest along with others prominent in the movement, but Mr. Stewart escaped from his residence two hours before the officers of the law arrived. He made his way to Nova Scotia and thence to England. The result was that, in 1824, Smith was recalled and Col. John Ready appointed in his place. There was great rejoicing in Charlottetown on the arrival of Mr. Stewart and Governor Ready. Large crowds assembled on King's wharf to welcome them; and it is said that Charlottetown was illuminated that night for the first time in its history. During the period of the Smith administration progress seems to have ceased to a large extent. Some new settlers came to that part of the country called by them New Glasgow, brought out by Mr. Cormack, the famous Newfoundland explorer. Some attention was paid to education, and in 1821 preparations were made for the opening of the National school. In 1823 a great loss was sustained by the death of the Reverend T. DesBrisay, the first Protestant clergyman to come to the Island.

Governor Ready met the legislature for the first time in 1825, and a very successful session followed, a large amount of good work being accomplished. This period is marked by a vast improvement in roads and bridges, and the encouragement given to the farmer to improve his stock, the governor himself becoming a farmer in order to stimulate others. Education was also attended to and an act passed for founding an academy in Charlottetown. A few years later, in 1830, a board of education was organised. Up to this time the winter mail system had been most unsatisfactory, and it was decided to try the Cape Traverse route, which proved to be a great improvement. A continual flow of immigrants marked this period, and among other districts Belfast and Johnston's River were settled.

The news of the approaching departure of Governor Ready was heard with sorrow by all classes of the community. Sir Murray

Maxwell was appointed to succeed him, but died suddenly before leaving England. On hearing of this sad event the inhabitants decided to petition the home government to retain Ready in office, but before their request could reach England Col. Aretas W. Young was appointed and arrived on the 27th of September, 1831. It was with sincere regret that the people of the Island saw Governor Ready depart from the colony where his wise and equitable rule had been of such great advantage to all.

Governor Young first met parliament in January, 1832. At this time cholera was raging in Europe and had extended to many parts of North America, accordingly the first business of the legislature was to pass various acts to aid in preventing the disease from reaching Prince Edward Island. Fortunately for the Island it remained free from this dreadful malady. A grant was also made to provide for the conveyance of mails by a steamer from Charlottetown to Pictou. The "Pocahontas" was the steamer chosen and made the trip twice a week. The following year a census was taken showing a marked increase in population over that of 1827. An act was also passed to reduce the duration of parliament from seven to four years. In 1834 Governor Young visited England returning in the autumn *Sir* Aretas Young. In the month of June of the same year John Stewart, of Mount Stewart, died. He had been intimately connected with the affairs of the colony from the year 1778. During 1835 government house was built, and Governor Young was the first to take possession. Previous to this date the governor had been greatly inconvenienced by the want of an official residence. At the close of this year Young died at government house, and was buried under the chancel in St. Paul's Church. *Sir* A. W. Young had been a distinguished officer in His Majesty's forces, having spent forty-one years of his life in the service of his country. The Hon. George Wright was sworn in as administrator.

The following August *Sir* John Harvey arrived as governor. This period in the history is unfortunately marked by a series of bad seasons, the potato crop having in some cases completely failed, causing untold misery among those who almost entirely depended for existence upon it. In January, 1836, the Central Academy was

opened. In March of the following year Harvey was appointed governor of New Brunswick, and Sir Charles Augustus Fitzroy succeeded him in Prince Edward Island.

Fitzroy evinced a keen interest in the affairs of the province, and by travelling through the country obtained an insight into the all important land question, which he found to be in every way an obstacle to the advancement of the colony. A school inspector was appointed about this time, an officer sadly needed, as education was at a very low ebb. In the same year, 1837, King William died, and was succeeded by Queen Victoria who was destined to a long and glorious reign of sixty-four years. The event of the Queen's accession and a year later her coronation, were duly celebrated on the Island with great festivities and merry-making. Fitzroy was appointed to a post in the West Indies and his term of administration came to a close. He was succeeded by Sir Henry Vere Huntley, during whose term of office the corner stone of the Colonial Building was laid in May, 1843. During Huntley's administration there was a continual bickering between His Excellency and the legislature, occasioned no doubt by faults on both sides. Much annoyance had been caused by the unstable state of the currency and an endeavor was made to set it right; however, two years passed before this was finally accomplished. An unfortunate disturbance happened at this time during an election held at Belfast. The riot which ensued proved so serious that several were killed and many were injured. The poll was closed and the election held some time later with the aid of a cordon of militia.

For several years an agitation had been carried on in favour of responsible government, and in 1847 the wishes of the people were put in the form of a petition praying Her Majesty to grant them that boon. In the same year Sir Henry Vere Huntley's term of office expired, and Sir Donald Campbell of Dunstaffnage became governor. The Scottish portion of the inhabitants were much pleased at having one of their own countrymen at the head of affairs, and he was received with great enthusiasm all throughout the country. It was the unpleasant duty of the new governor to intimate to the legislature that their petition for responsible government had been refused by the home authorities. The Colonial Secretary, Lord Grey, however, considered that the

colony ought now to be prepared to meet the expense of their own civil list, apart from the salary of the "governor." The assembly expressed itself as perfectly willing to meet the wishes of Lord Grey under the following conditions:—That all claim to the crown lands and quit-rents be vested in the colony; that all revenue from either direct or indirect taxation be at the entire disposal of the province; and that responsible government be granted. All but the last, the most important clause, were conceded. His Excellency dissolved parliament and a new house assembled in March, 1850. This house refused to vote supplies until the British Government acceded to their request. Parliament was prorogued, but met again in April, when the necessary supplies were voted. A strong plea was made to the Queen for responsible government, the governor himself strongly advocating the cause of the colonists. Unfortunately Sir Donald Campbell was not long spared to prosecute his duties as administrator, but in October of the following year died at his official residence. He was succeeded by Sir Alexander Bannerman, who arrived on the 8th of March, having crossed in an ice boat from Cape Tormentine to Traverse. It was understood that Bannerman was empowered to introduce responsible government, and this anticipation was well founded. The following men were chosen as a government under the new régime:—President, Hon. George Coles; Attorney-General, Hon. Charles Young; Treasurer, Hon. Joseph Pope; and Colonial Secretary, Hon. James Warburton.

FOURTH PERIOD—1851 to 1873.

With all other sources of revenue the postage system came under the control of the province, and the letter rate was regulated at threepence to any part of America and twopence throughout the Island. On visiting the various parts of the country the governor noted the extremely low state of education, and was instrumental in having a special assessment levied for the purpose of rendering it more efficient. A franchise bill was brought in and passed by the assembly, and on the news arriving of its having received the royal assent the opposition took the opportunity of petitioning the governor to dissolve the house which had just been

prorogued. They held that the assembly was not representative, not having been elected by a vote of the whole community. Bannerman acceded to their request and dissolved parliament. He was severely censured by the one party and applauded by the other for his conduct in this matter. His Excellency was appointed governor of the Bahamas, and in the spring of that year was followed by Sir Dominic Daly. The most important occurrences during his administration were :—The negotiating of a Free Trade treaty with the United States, which proved most beneficial to the province as a ready market being created so near at hand, every encouragement was given the farmer to improve the condition of his land. A still further advance was made in education, and in 1854 a normal school was opened for the training of teachers. The land question, which had never been at rest all these years, finally came to a practical issue, when, on the petition of the provincial legislature, a commission was appointed to inquire into, and, if possible, settle the whole question. The petition was not sanctioned or carried into effect until 1860, though presented during Governor Daly's administration. The commissioners chosen proved themselves indefatigable in their efforts to obtain a thorough understanding of the case, and their award well justified the confidence placed in them by the local legislature. Sir Dominic Daly left the Island in 1859, and George Dundas was appointed to fill his place.

During his long term of office the progress of the country was slow but sure. A still further advancement in education was accomplished when, in 1860, the Prince of Wales College was founded. At the time when Britain was engaged in war with Russia and not knowing when the troops might be called to active service from the American possessions, the colonies were requested to form volunteer corps. This was responded to with great enthusiasm on Prince Edward Island, and a large body of volunteers was soon raised. From the time when the Island came under British rule, troops had been stationed at Charlottetown, never, however, in large numbers, and often long intervals intervened between the departure of one body of troops and the arrival of another.

The Island was highly honoured in 1860 by a visit from H. R. H. Prince of Wales. Great enthusiasm greeted the young Prince, and

on the evening of his arrival Charlottetown was illuminated, and a grand ball given in the Colonial Building. His Royal Highness expressed himself as much pleased with the reception accorded him.

For some time the question of the union of the British Provinces in North America had been discussed in the parliaments of various provinces. As early as 1854 this matter had been seriously considered in the house of assembly of Nova Scotia. It was, however, ten years later before Prince Edward Island became interested in this union. In 1864 it was decided to hold a conference in Charlottetown of representatives from all the provinces desirous of entering into confederation, a delegation from Upper and Lower Canada also being present.

Before this meeting the Maritime Provinces had merely thought of a union among themselves, but after this first conference it was understood that union in a broader sense was the object of the delegates. After leaving Charlottetown, where they had been sumptuously entertained, the delegates proceeded to Fredericton, Halifax, and other places, where they were received with lavish hospitality, but at the same time a large amount of work was accomplished.

On the 10th of October a conference was opened at Quebec where terms of union were discussed. The conditions offered Prince Edward Island were not at all advantageous, therefore the house of assembly would not consider them for a moment. The people of the Island generally were strongly opposed to union, as the financial position of the province was so good that no advantage could be gained by the terms proposed.

In 1871 a resolution was brought before the assembly by Mr. J. C. Pope advising the construction of a railway from Cascumpec to Georgetown, with branches to Charlottetown, and other parts of the country. The argument set forth in favour of this resolution was the impassable state of the roads in the spring and fall of the year, also the impossibility of improving them on account of the nature of the soil. A bill was brought in on the strength of this resolution, and two days after its first reading was passed. The country found itself pledged to the construction of a railway which was to cost not more than £5,000 per mile. This step was perhaps advisable from a commercial point of view ; but so small a

country, with only 80,000 inhabitants, was not financially able to have such an enormous debt thrust upon it as the construction of a railway must entail. The question of confederation, which had never been left at rest since 1864, was again seriously discussed in 1873, and Messrs. Haythorne and Laird were appointed a delegation to confer with the Ottawa authorities, and, if possible, agree on terms advantageous to the Island. This movement in favour of confederation was caused by the fact that the executive council intimated to the house, at its opening in January, 1873, that the country would either have to submit to taxation, in order to meet the expense incurred by the building of the railway, or become part of the Dominion. In March, after the return of the delegates from Ottawa, the house was dissolved and a new assembly met in April. The lieutenant-governor on opening the house stated that papers relating to union would be laid before parliament. However, when the terms proposed by the Dominion were made known, the amounts offered were declared to be entirely inadequate to meet the expenditure of the colony, and a delegation of four gentlemen was appointed to proceed to Ottawa and endeavour to obtain better terms. Although all that was asked for was not accorded the Island representatives, a compromise was effected, and an agreement signed by them and the committee of the Privy Council of Canada. The delegation returned to Charlottetown and the conditions of union were put before the house. They were virtually the same as those obtained by Messrs. Haythorne and Laird.

The principal conditions of confederation were as follows :— That \$800,000 be advanced for the purpose of buying the land from the large proprietors. That the Island should be allowed to incur a debt of \$4,701,050, or \$50 per head of its population as shown by the census of 1871. That the revenue derived from various sources amount to about \$210,000. That the Dominion Government assume and defray all the charges for the following services, viz :— (a) The salary of the Lieutenant-Governor ; (b) The salaries of the Judges of the Supreme Court, and District, or County Courts, when established ; (c) The charges in respect to the Department of Customs ; (d) The Postal Department ; (e) The protection of the Fisheries ; (f) The provision for the Militia ; (g) The Lighthouses,

Quarantine and Marine Hospitals ; (*h*) The Geological Survey ; (*i*) The Penitentiary ; (*j*) Efficient Steam Service for the conveyance of mails and passengers to be established and maintained between the Island and the Dominion, winter and summer, thus placing the Island in continuous communication with the Intercolonial Railway and the railway system of the Dominion ; (*k*) The maintenance of Telegraphic Communication between the Island and the Mainland. It was also agreed that the Island be represented in the Dominion Parliament by six members. The railways, under contract and in the course of construction, were to become the property of Canada.

Under the above conditions the Island became a part of the great Dominion. As to whether much benefit has been derived from the union there is a great difference of opinion. It was, however, a means of settling the question of land tenure, and for that alone confederation may be considered to have been a boon to the province.

LAND QUESTION.

The land question on Prince Edward Island, which, for over a hundred years, was a sad hindrance to the advancement of the colony, commenced we may say with British rule. It served as the chief subject of discussion at the first parliament assembled and continued to occupy successive houses of assembly until its settlement after Confederation in 1875. The first chapter in what proved to be an endless chain of complications was written when, in the month of August 1767, this beautiful little Island was granted away in a single day by ballot to favourites of the Crown. Some of these men no doubt had claims, and were deserving of consideration, while others were mere political hangers on, and cared nothing for the welfare of the country entrusted to them. In fact, a large number seemed to regard it in the light of a land speculation and disposed of their portions as soon as they could find a purchaser.

The Island was divided, as before stated, into sixty-seven townships or lots, of about twenty thousand acres each, three small reservations being retained as sites for county towns, and lots forty-nine, fifty and sixty-six for the Crown. One hundred acres were reserved for a church and thirty for a school in each township ; the government also retaining the right of erecting fortifications in

any part of the country where they deemed it necessary. A reservation in the grants of certain lots abutting upon the seashore, of five hundred feet from high-water mark, for the purpose of a free fishery, caused endless disputes in later years. The terms of settlement were :—"That the grantee of each lot should settle the same within ten years from the date of grant, in the proportion of one person to every two hundred acres ; second, that such settlers should be European foreign protestants, or such persons as had resided in British America for two years previous to the date of grant ; third, that, if one-third of the land were not settled within four years from the time of cession, the whole would be forfeited ; fourth, a quit-rent was to be leyied of from two to six shillings per one hundred acres, payable annually, one-half after five years, and the whole after ten years from date of grant." This money was to be devoted to defraying the expense of government, payment of officials' salaries, etc. It was on these terms that the original proprietors received their lands, and had they been fulfilled no doubt in a few years the Island would have been perhaps the most prosperous colony in North America. The conditions were of a reasonable nature with the exception of that concerning foreign protestants, which was absurd and impossible of accomplishment.

In 1769 a number of the proprietors petitioned the home government to form the Island into a separate province, promising to defray expense of officials, etc., by an immediate payment of quit-rents due only four years hence. The petition was acceded to but the quit-rents were never paid, and the home authorities were obliged to meet the expense incurred. The want of interest in the colony evinced by the large majority of the landowners, together with the non-payment of quit-rents, caused a very unsatisfactory state of affairs. The local legislature, therefore, petitioned the King in 1797 that the lands of those proprietors who had not even endeavoured to fulfill the terms of settlement be escheated (forfeited) and their land be apportioned to actual settlers. The petition was disallowed but a settlement of the quit-rents was proposed. A scale of payment was arranged under which each was to pay according to what he had done, or endeavoured to do, for his land. At this time a large number of the original landlords took the opportunity of selling their lots,

and eighteen whole and six half townships were disposed of. Still a large number of the landholders escaped payment of quit-rent and retained their property. A few years later another arrangement was suggested by the British government, that £1,000 be contributed annually in lieu of all quit-rent. This was also ignored. Many efforts were made at escheat by the assembly but their efforts were invariably defeated by the Crown. The proprietors always appeared to have retained sufficient influence in Britain to frustrate any measure not beneficial to themselves.

The assembly finding it impossible to exact quit-rent passed a bill by which a tax was levied on wilderness land, thinking that the owners would thus be encouraged to settle their property. On the arrival of this bill in England a memorial was also received from the proprietors protesting against the tax. The Colonial Secretary, Lord Glenelg, forwarded a copy of the memorial to the Island legislature, on the presentation of which a joint committee of the council and assembly was appointed, and a report of the condition of affairs prepared for the home authorities. This report was most extensive, and a few of the figures contained therein are a striking condemnation of the financial condition of the province. For the last twelve years the local expenditure of the government had been £107,643, of which £27,000 had been expended on roads and bridges, to the undoubted advantage of the memorialists, £13,556 on public buildings and wharves, and £66,562 for other local purposes. Out of these large amounts only £7,413 had been contributed by the landowners, leaving the £100,000, to be borne by the local consumer of dutiable articles. This able document, along with other important papers bearing on the subject, was forwarded to Lord Durham at Quebec, the then governor-general of British North America. On a careful examination of the matter submitted for his consideration, his lordship, who was an undoubted authority on all colonial questions, made an eloquent appeal in favour of the tenants, and in consequence the bill for the taxation of wilderness lands was ratified by the Crown.

One small point had been gained by the local government, but it was of no real importance towards the settlement of the general question, and successive assemblies discussed every possible means of solving the difficulty, but no satisfactory conclusion was arrived

at. Complaints were continually being brought in by tenants that proper titles could not be obtained from the landlords, also that great hardship was caused by short leases. It was impossible for a man to take pride in improving his land, if when he was old, and not able for work, the fruits of so many years of hard toil would be taken from him. There were good landlords who were of real benefit to their tenants, but unfortunately there were many who cared for nothing but the few pounds of rent received, and were utterly heartless if the money were not forthcoming. Some who had a little money on their arrival managed to pay their rent, and did not find the conditions too severe, but as a rule, the only prosperous districts were those where the land was held as freehold.

A large number of Loyalists, after the war, had been induced by the proprietors to settle on the Island by a promise of land, but on arriving it was most difficult for some of these men to obtain proper titles to the land on which they had been placed. Others, more fortunate, receiving land and title together afterwards proved to be among the best settlers in the country. Many of those who found they could not be confirmed in their right to the land left in disgust, while others who had spent their all in reaching the Island could not leave, and were obliged to remain "tenants at will," not knowing from day to day how long they would be left in peace. This disgraceful state of affairs could scarcely continue without some serious steps being taken to rectify the wrongs of the tenants. Three different propositions had been put forward for the settlement of the question. First by establishing a court of escheat, second by the purchase of the land by the Crown, and third by a heavy tax on wilderness land. All three propositions were rejected by Lord John Russell, Colonial Secretary.

Finally, in the year 1859, the Island legislature petitioned the Queen to appoint a commission to inquire into and regulate matters. The petition was granted and the commission was appointed as follows:—Commissioner for the Crown, Hon. J. H. Grey, of New Brunswick; Commissioner for the Proprietors, Matthew Ritchie, of Halifax; and Commissioner for the Island Legislature, Hon. Joseph Howe, of Nova Scotia. The commission met for the first time in the assembly room of the Colonial Building, and court was also held at St. Eleanor's and Georgetown. Every opportunity

was afforded the commissioners of visiting the country and learning from personal observation how the existing system was working. The final award which was presented to the Crown in July of 1861 was as follows :—1st. That the Imperial Government should stand security for a loan raised by the local government, that the lands might be purchased by the government and re-sold to the tenants. 2nd. That if the home authorities would not guarantee a grant for this purpose then the proprietors should be obliged to sell to the tenants at a fixed sum, and if they disagreed about the amount then arbitrators should be called in to settle the matter. The local legislature fully approved of this decision, but the Crown set it aside and excused its action by stating that the commissioners had altogether exceeded their instructions in suggesting that arbitrators be appointed to determine the value of the land. Here the matter ended for the time being. A few years later the Cunard estate was bought by the government under the "Land Purchase Act," under which the Selkirk and Worrel estates had also been acquired.

As a result of the rejection of this award a "Tenant League" was formed and several large demonstrations held. The governor, fearing a rebellion, sent for troops. No violence, however, was attempted and the tenants were assured of redress by promise of a speedy settlement, and a land purchase act was passed in order to further this object. By this act a tenant could obtain the fee simple of his farm at the rate of fifteen years purchase. Also £50,000 was voted by the legislature in order to aid the farmer in the purchase of his land by the payment of one-half of what the property was valued at, the tenant paying the other half. A number of farms were bought under this act. The next step taken by the local government was the framing of the "Tenants Compensation Act," which was based largely on a recent bill passed for the relief of the tenantry in Ireland. This act caused a great commotion among the landholders and was not sanctioned by the Crown.

By the terms of confederation \$800,000 was to be advanced towards buying up the land. To attain this object "The Land Purchase Act of 1875" was brought in and approved of by the local House. The proprietors did all in their power to defeat this

act, but in the face of all opposition it received the sanction of the Governor-General, Lord Dufferin. The chief conditions of this act were :—That the landlord should be compelled to sell to the local government at a fixed sum to be settled by three commissioners. One appointed by the governor-general, one by the local government, and one by each proprietor concerned. Those holding five hundred acres or under were not affected by this law. This was the final settlement of a question which, for over one hundred years, had been most detrimental to the welfare of the colony. It is unfortunate that such a drastic mode of settlement should have been necessary. The landowner was obliged to sell, which was scarcely fair, and the tenant was induced to buy, when in many cases he could ill afford it. The only just and equitable solution of the problem would have been that which was many times urged by the assembly, of indemnity to both proprietor and tenant from the crown. This redemption of the land for the people of the Island would have been but a small recompense for the irreparable wrong inflicted upon an infant colony, by granting away all its lands and subjecting it to the intolerable burden of absentee landlordism.

FIFTH PERIOD—1873 TO THE PRESENT DAY.

With the introduction of responsible government the post of lieutenant-governor became less onerous, and the frequent and often serious differences between the governor and his advisers no longer occurred. Government House, however, remained the social centre of a very select, and, it may be said, aristocratic society, in fact remarkably cultured and refined for so small a colony. This social circle was largely composed of officials connected with the government, and numerous families whose ancestors had perhaps come from Britain with some former governor, and instead of returning home with him had settled in the Island. A continual round of gaiety was indulged in—balls and sleighing parties in winter, and picnics in summer were very popular.

As the country prospered, the people naturally felt the want of more comfortable dwellings, and it was not many years before the old log cabins had almost entirely disappeared, and were replaced

by modern frame houses. Let us glance back at the first years of English settlement on this Island. When a settler arrived he was directed to the portion of land which had been allotted to him by the landlord. His only way of reaching it was by bridle path through the woods or by canoe on the rivers. When he had selected a suitable place to erect his dwelling he would at once proceed to cut down sufficient trees for this purpose, at the same time making a clearing on which to build. The trees which he felled were carefully cut into lengths of about the same size, and were then dove-tailed at the ends, in order to fit into each other at the corners of the cabin, nails not being obtainable at any price. Thus the logs were laid one above the other until they attained a height of over six feet. Then a frame-work of a gable roof was constructed and light poles laid across, and over all a thatch of birch bark. The crevices of the whole erection were well plastered with mud and moss to keep out the cold, and a chimney with a large open fireplace was usually at one end of the hut. The cabin, when finished, consisted of one room, and a loft which was reached by a ladder. Iron of every description was so hard to procure that the doors were hung on wooden hinges, and cart wheels were also made without the help of that metal. However, this period of hard times is gone for ever, and we only know about it from hearing stories recounted by the old inhabitants, whose fathers had probably felled the first trees in their district.

When Confederation was finally accomplished, Governor Robinson, who had succeeded Governor Dundas, was administering the affairs of the province, and remained until 1874, when his term of office came to a close and Sir Robert Hodgson succeeded him, being the first Islander to hold this post of honour.

In 1877 a radical change was made in the education of the whole province, and a system of public schools established. It was through the untiring efforts of Mr. L. H. Davies (now Sir Louis) that this bill was passed. And though faulty in many respects it was a vast improvement on anything previously attempted. A few years later another equally important step was taken towards the betterment of public instruction when the Prince of Wales College and Normal School were united under one principal, enabling both

young men and women to obtain an excellent education, and in their turn, by becoming teachers, to prepare others to follow in their footsteps. The magnificent work accomplished by this institution is too widely known to require comment. Saint Dunstan's, a residential college, where the Roman Catholic youth of the province are educated has also contributed nobly to the advancement of education.

An important legislative reform was accomplished in 1893 when Mr. Frederick Peters, who was Premier at the time, brought in a bill to unite the two houses of parliament into one. The two houses, the legislative council and the assembly, consisted of forty-three members, both elective, the council being elected by the owners of property and the assembly by the popular vote. The plan adopted for this union was as follows: That, of the two members representing each district in the assembly, one should represent property and the other the people at large, in this manner the interests of both important factors in the community were represented in one house, and the number of legislators was reduced from forty-three to thirty. The change has proved entirely satisfactory.

An opportunity has never been lost by the people of Prince Edward Island of proving their loyalty to the ruling sovereign, and both the golden and diamond Jubilees of Queen Victoria were most enthusiastically celebrated by them. And in 1899 when war was being waged in South Africa our brave boys were only too anxious to serve their Queen and country, and several contingents left these shores to fight side by side with their British and colonial brothers. At the close of the war in 1901 the death of Queen Victoria was learned with regret by all, and memorial services were held in the churches. In August of the following year they welcomed the accession to the throne of Edward VII.

A sketch of the history of Prince Edward Island would not be complete without mention being made of its rapidly growing commercial importance. When an almost prohibitive tariff was imposed by the United States the farmer was obliged to seek elsewhere for a market, and this was readily found in Great Britain. The sister provinces also look largely to the Island

for dairy and farm produce. Exportation has been greatly facilitated by the improved communication with the mainland. The Steam Navigation Co.'s two excellent steamers, S.S. "Northumberland" and S.S. "Princess" performing that duty in summer, and the Dominion boats S.S. "Minto" and S.S. "Stanley" in winter—thus keeping up an almost continuous connection with the continent. Within the last ten years Charlottetown, the capital of the province, has been much improved, the streets are being paved and many fine new buildings have been erected, among these St. Dunstan's Cathedral stands pre-eminently the most beautiful and a credit to the whole province. The twentieth century has opened propitiously for the "Garden of the Gulf," and as time passes may it become a veritable "Garden of Eden."

LIST OF GOVERNORS

IN CONNECTION WITH NOVA SCOTIA.

Montague Wilmot	1763-1766.
Lord William Campbell	1766-1770.

AS A SEPARATE PROVINCE.

Walter Patterson	1770-1786.
Edmund Fanning	1786-1805.
Joseph F. W. DesBarres	1805-1813.
Charles Douglas Smith	1813-1824.
John Ready	1824-1831.
Sir Aretus W. Young	1831-1835.
Sir John Harvey	1835-1837.
Sir Charles Augustus Fitzroy	1837-1841.
Sir Henry Vere Huntly	1841-1847.
Sir Donald Campbell	1847-1850.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

Sir Alexander Bannerman	1851-1854.
Sir Dominic Daly	1854-1859.
George Dundas	1859-1870.
William Robinson	1870-1873.

CONFEDERATION.

Sir Robert Hodgson	1874-1879.
T. Heath Haviland	1879-1884.
Andrew A. Macdonald	1884-1889.
Jedidiah Carvell	1889-1894.
George Howlan	1894-1899.
Peter MacIntyre	1899-1904.
Donald A. Mackinnon	1904-19—.



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